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PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

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*The quarterly journal of the Civil Service Assembly
of the United States and Canada, devoted to the
improvement of standards and practices in public
personnel administration.*

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CONTENTS

	PAGE
COMMUNITY RESOURCES OF PERSONNEL AGENCIES <i>Henry J. McFarland</i>	1
CREDIT ADVICE FOR CITY EMPLOYEES <i>Harry W. Marsh and Louis E. Yavner</i>	8
REINSTATING PUBLIC EMPLOYEES AFTER MILITARY SERVICE <i>Dan S. Moore</i>	14
JOB EVALUATION THROUGH POINT RATING <i>John F. Fisher</i>	19
DEVELOPING ADEQUATE CLASS SPECIFICATIONS <i>Robert I. Biren</i>	27
THE 1943 ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION	32
COURT DECISIONS	43
BOOK REVIEWS	49
ARTICLE ABSTRACTS	54



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THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY of the United States and Canada is a non-profit association of public agencies, officials, and private citizens engaged or interested in public personnel administration. The constituent public agencies of the Assembly are civil service commissions and boards, or personnel offices serving a particular governmental department or division. They serve national, state, and local governments of the United States, and Dominion, provincial, and local areas in Canada. The Assembly was organized in 1906 by officials and others actually engaged in civil service and other public personnel activities in order to provide mutual help in meeting common problems and to improve public personnel administration.

Membership in the Assembly is open to both agencies and individuals. Any public personnel agency vested with legal authority to administer a formal system of public employment is eligible for active agency membership, and any person actively engaged in the field of public personnel administration is eligible for active individual membership. Agencies and individuals interested in public personnel administration, but not actively engaged in the field, are eligible for affiliate membership. Students and apprentices in the field are eligible for student membership.

In addition to its quarterly journal, *Public Personnel Review*, the Assembly publishes a monthly informational *News Letter* and occasional special bulletins concerning topics of timely interest. It also publishes a comprehensive series of volumes, "Policies and Practices in Public Personnel Administration," dealing with the various functional aspects of the field.

The Assembly's Headquarters Office and Secretariat serves as a clearinghouse for information and research on public personnel matters. Inquiries concerning membership, dues, services, and other publications of the Assembly will receive prompt response without obligation. Address: Civil Service Assembly, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois.

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Community Resources of Personnel Agencies

HENRY J. McFARLAND

USING COMMUNITY RESOURCES to facilitate the work of a personnel agency is both a fruitful and intriguing experience. Many civil service agencies have explored quite thoroughly and carefully the resources available to them in their communities. Other agencies have yet to make full use of such facilities. The most frequently used community resources are the schools, with the local newspapers running a close second. Many community institutions are often neglected, if not wholly overlooked, by personnel agencies. It is proposed, therefore, to survey the various resources to be found in most communities and to point out how some civil service agencies are using those facilities to advantage.

SCHOOL SYSTEMS

THE FREQUENT USE of a community's schools by civil service agencies is a natural result of the complementary interests of the two types of agencies in the imparting and testing of skills. In addition to having facilities for the administration of tests, schools have in their teaching staffs a human resource which frequently combines useful skills with a willingness to participate in community activities. The types of school assistance to civil service agencies are numerous. The use of school bulletin boards for civil service examination announcements and the use of school rooms for the giving of written tests are long established practices. School gymnasiums and athletic fields are often utilized to give physical agility tests to prospective policemen and firemen. School shops, laboratories, and professional equipment are used in demonstration

tests. Teachers assist by administering or proctoring examinations and have many times assisted in the construction and development of examinations. Vocational courses and evening classes can be developed and have been used as a source of applicants, as have the graduating classes of the regular school courses.

In the induction or in-service training fields the school system is an especially valuable community resource. Class rooms, lecture halls, and auditoriums can be utilized for classes and to show training films. Some municipalities have cooperated with their school authorities in the giving of short refresher courses or even more intensive courses in such subjects as municipal accounting, laboratory methods, public health, statistical methods, and public speaking. Sometimes regular instructors of the schools are used, while in other instances especially qualified governmental employees are placed on the instructional staff. In many municipalities personnel men regularly call to the attention of employees evening or night courses being presented by the community's schools.

UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES, although frequently offering the same type of assistance to civil service agencies as do the lower schools, may give many special services to public personnel officers. Universities have developed interne training in public administration, especially during the last decade. In like manner, engineering schools frequently seek subprofessional engineering work for their engineering students during summer vacations. Several universities—Syracuse, Chicago, Minnesota, California, and Stanford, to name a few—have cooperated specifically in the training of personnel technicians. Agricultural colleges have long given short courses for dairy inspectors and other inspectional jobs in varied agricultural fields. Some state

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civil service agencies have cooperated with colleges and universities in the formulation of curriculums leading to employment within specified public occupations. One of the best examples of citizen-public employee training courses is the annual Institute of Government conducted by the University of Southern California, where instructors and government experts combine to run well-planned and integrated training courses covering all the fields of governmental work from assessing to zoning.

Full curriculums of study, either for in-residents or by extension, have been or are being given by our universities and colleges. Alert public personnel administrators will take advantage of such resources. Recently, as a result of a police survey in Syracuse, an extension course in police administration is scheduled for local police at Syracuse University. Syracuse municipal authorities hope that eventually other cities will send men to take the police curriculum at Syracuse, and that college men will enroll in the course to prepare themselves for police work. The study-work programs of Antioch College and the University of Cincinnati are, of course, well known.

As a means of developing the schools as a fertile recruitment field, the Michigan State Civil Service Commission has developed two attractively printed manuals—one describing career opportunities in the state service for college graduates, and the other outlining similar opportunities for high school graduates. The New York State Civil Service Commission has also issued a publication addressed largely to possible candidates for entrance positions in a number of professions.

The California State Personnel Board, in its program for taking examinations to the people, has utilized schools all over that state as complete examination centers. Applicants come to the schools at designated times to meet representatives of the State Personnel Board for applications, interviews, fingerprinting, and written examinations.

Many public personnel men have participated in vocational clinics sponsored by universities, colleges, and high schools for the benefit of students. Some few agencies have developed regular programs of speaking to senior high school classes just before graduation. An example of this approach can be

found in the program and experience of the Los Angeles County Civil Service Commission. Many agencies are scheduling examination programs so that graduating high school or college students may participate and so that eligible registers may be ready just prior to graduation day.

ANOTHER WAY in which the schools may be used as a resource is in the recruiting of the older boy who may still be too young for the draft. Some of the West Coast aircraft factories, in cooperation with school authorities, are utilizing the services of older school boys on a split-shift basis. The New Orleans Department of City Civil Service has recruited high school boys for the Department of Public Works for refuse collection work and for the City Parkway Commission to cut grass and work at the city nurseries. High school officials in Springfield, Illinois, have cooperated with the city engineer in recruiting students for the city's street repair and maintenance program. Many of the youths took jobs as a means of training for athletic competition or for military service. All the common labor on several miles of patching and resurfacing of city streets has been done by about forty boys. Plans call for more patching and repairing by high school students to carry Springfield pavements through the war. School-age boys in Birmingham, Michigan, did such a good job of reading meters for the city during the summer of 1943 that a plan has been worked out whereby the same boys work evenings and Saturdays as meter readers during the winter, so the work will not keep them away from classes.

These cited instances are but a random sampling of some of the various uses to which the schools can be put as a community resource. Instances such as have been mentioned could be multiplied, of course, but these will serve to indicate the valuable resource that we personnel officers have in the schools and educational institutions.

NEWSPAPERS AND RADIO STATIONS

MOST PUBLIC personnel administrators have had some experience in using the newspapers as a means of publicizing announcements about forthcoming examinations. Some have found radio stations equally cooperative

in making "spot announcements" of employment opportunities. With regard to newspapers, civil service agencies generally find that editors welcome news items about appointments to positions, especially where names are involved. Demonstration tests are generally news and picture-worthy events, but the city editor won't know where to assign the cameraman unless the public personnel administrator provides the necessary information. Newspapers are generally hospitable to this type of story. In New York State the examinations division makes a practice of giving to the newspapers the names of the highest eligibles in any competitive examination. The California State Personnel Board regularly sends a special story to the hometown newspaper when a local eligible is appointed to a state civil service position.

Several personnel agencies have found radio stations quite willing to place time at the agencies' disposal for regular broadcasts. A number of agencies have made use of such opportunities, while others have found the time required to write scripts and produce programs too great a burden for limited staffs.

In some of the jurisdictions where the civil service act requires legal notice of examinations, agencies are making good use of display space in newspapers, with a brief slug at the bottom of the display noting: "This is a legal notice as required by law." A variation of this type of display ad was the "clip-coupon" technique that was used by the Arkansas State Personnel Division in informing citizens of examination.

Other more novel advertising media have occasionally been used. Although movie houses as publicity resources haven't been greatly developed, there have been some instances of such activity. The New York City Civil Service Commission showed its movie, "Merit System Advancing," as a short in one of the Broadway movie houses. Many of the federal agencies are also using this publicity medium. Slides have been used to call attention to pending examinations. "Trailers" can be used to acquaint large groups of people with the story of a particular project. The New York State Department of Public Health, the Office of Price Administration, and the Federal Public Housing Authority have used this type of

public relations media. The Chicago Regional Office of the United States Civil Service Commission has had good success with theater lobby boards.

The New York City Civil Service Commission has utilized car cards in the subways to acquaint New Yorkers with employment possibilities, and the various city departments have found this resource useful. The Phoenix, Arizona, Civil Service Commission utilized the dash boards of street cars to call attention to a forthcoming police examination, and signs in municipal bus lines have called attention to vital employment opportunities.

CIVIC, FRATERNAL, AND SERVICE GROUPS

THESE MISCELLANEOUS GROUPS of more or less selected citizens constitute a resource which, in one form or another, is available to every civil service jurisdiction. Agencies in localities where there is an active civic association with a bureau of research find themselves with a very valuable resource, capable of assistance in many aspects of public personnel administration. The League of Women Voters needs no special introduction to civil service people, nor do the merit system associations found in many states. In the civic association field, one is not limited to local boundaries, for there are such organizations as the National Civil Service Reform League, the National Municipal League, and the various national professional groups, all of which can render valuable assistance to a civil service agency in solving its problems. Local bar associations and medical societies have been useful to many agencies and could be made more useful in many places.

Most fraternal orders have employment committees which will be found eager to cooperate with civil service agencies in bringing examinations to the attention of their members. Little used and often misunderstood are the so-called "service clubs." Lions International makes a specialty of assisting the unsighted; Kiwanis has a special activity in boys' work; and Rotary is well known for its work with crippled children. Where special examination problems arise in these fields, committees of these service clubs and their citizen members can be unusually useful. Lesser known, perhaps, is the fact that all service clubs include

civic education and participation among their reasons for being. An alert public personnel administrator can utilize the existing interests of these business and professional men to producing better understanding of the merit system.

Probably the most frequent use made by civil service commissions of the civic and professional groups is in the utilization of the services of their public spirited members in administering examinations—written, demonstration, and qualification analysis. Many agencies, over a long period, have been and are using citizen specialists in many fields to aid them in their work. Many in the personnel field think that even greater use can be made of this resource. Agencies in the State of New Jersey and in Los Angeles County have developed and used over a long period of time committees of professional persons to assist them not only in examination work but in the development of class specifications, minimal entrance requirements, salary plans, and public relations activities. This use of advisory committees has had an upsurge during the present war period.

LIBRARIES, CHURCHES, AND COMMUNITY CENTERS

LIBRARIES AND LIBRARIANS can perform many services for personnel officers, in addition to the frequent posting of examination announcements. In the manner of other professions, librarians have been willing to assist with examinations, both written and oral, for the many classes of library positions. They have many times cooperated by giving prominence to special reading lists, by reserving books most likely to be used in studying for examinations so all could benefit from their use, and by the purchase of books desired in public personnel programs. They have also helped by supplying current book reviews for employee magazines. An alert public personnel administrator may secure the assistance of the library's technically trained reference librarian, who may be willing to direct specified types of articles and books to the attention of the administrator and members of his staff.

Churches and community centers generally have been overlooked as possible public personnel resources. The fact remains, however, that many churches have recreational halls

supplied with tables and chairs, which can be utilized in giving written tests. Again, employee activity groups may arrange to use social halls of churches or the facilities of community centers for their meetings and social activities. And, where an agency is doing in-service training, these social halls and community centers may be utilized for lecture purposes or as training classrooms. Too, these centers offer fruitful places to post examination announcements. Local pastors in Paris, Illinois, are now aiding in the recruitment program of the United States Civil Service Commission by reading civil service announcements from their pulpits on Sunday mornings.

COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES

ALTHOUGH OFTEN NEGLECTED, business firms and associations are a community resource which may be utilized by the public personnel administrator in capitalizing on effective procedures and sidestepping pitfalls. Many chambers of commerce have industrial divisions that keep abreast of wage rates for specific classes of work and are more than willing to cooperate in wage data surveys or manpower utilization or stabilization matters. If one is considering a wage plan based on cost of living, the chamber of commerce generally has information of value.

Let's look at this industrial resource a bit more. The telephone company has printed materials on how to use the telephone, which they are glad to put into employees' hands. They have good 16 mm. sound films suitable for training purposes. They have made a mirror-phone available for Navy training classes. On numerous occasions they have made PBX equipment and supervisors available to civil service commissions for practical demonstration tests.

Office machine companies, including International Business Machines, Comptometer, Remington-Rand, and Dictaphone, among others, have schools, sound films, and other materials available for examination and training purposes—all, in many cases, for the asking. Demonstration tests haven't been utilized by civil service commissions as much as the literature in the field and the conferences have indicated is desirable, largely because civil service agencies do not have the equipment or ma-

materials with which to work. However, some agencies have found that shops in the community are quite willing to cooperate by providing equipment.

OUR BROTHER PERSONNEL administrators in industry could tell us lots when it comes to handling labor-management agreements and conferences, utilizing suggestion systems, handling employee health and welfare matters, and many other facets of personnel administration only now beginning to be treated by public personnel administrators. Many industries have classification and salary plans which can generally be utilized in similar surveys for public positions. Industrial personnel people are, at times, good recruiting sources, and especially is this true if a public personnel administrator will coordinate his recruitment program with a period of industrial layoff.

An interesting instance of the cooperation of a chamber of commerce, a school system, and federal agencies is the recently reported project in Sacramento, California, consisting of a canvass of the reserve supply of womanpower. The occupational survey was conducted by the Sacramento Air Depot and the Vocational Department of the Sacramento Junior College, in cooperation with the War Manpower Commission, the United States Employment Service, and the local chamber of commerce. Advance publicity was given the survey by local newspapers and radio stations for two weeks prior to the distribution of questionnaires.

EMPLOYEE ORGANIZATIONS

UNIONS AND EMPLOYEE ASSOCIATIONS have become recognized for their potentialities in furthering the personnel program. Employee organizations are becoming useful as channels through which to acquaint members with established and contemplated policies. Committees of employee organizations are being used as clearing media for policy and administrative recommendations and suggestions. In this connection the United States Civil Service Commission is now using a labor-management committee to assist in working out policies, suggestions, and administrative procedures.

Employee organizations may and are being utilized for the centralized presentation of

grievances, in sorting out and disposing of inconsequential ones, and in combining common individual grievances into one presentation. Not only have employee organizations presented grievances, but in many cases they have presented useful suggestions to correct the fault that caused the grievance. In the federal government you will find employee-designated members sitting on service rating appeal boards and on boards considering charges against employees.

Government has but comparatively recently begun to take advantage of well-run suggestion systems. In this connection employee-management committees on suggestion awards have proved highly satisfactory and desirable. Although this is neither the time or place to go into the mechanics and pitfalls of suggestion systems, the fact remains that where properly operated, with the employees' confidence, suggestion systems pay dividends in increased production, simplified procedures, and heightened morale.

IT IS A COMMONPLACE that employee organizations share actively in those activities which may be grouped as "social." They are often called upon for various drives, such as community chest, war bonds, collections for diverse purposes, and civilian defense enrollment. One generally finds employee organizations utilized to administer, or help administer, retirement, credit union, group health, safety, and welfare programs. Overlooked many times is the usefulness of employee organizations in conducting surveys and research projects and in recruitment and training activities.

That our own employees are a resource not to be overlooked in recruiting is amply illustrated by the "tell a friend" campaign instituted by employees of the Los Angeles County Civil Service Department for the purpose of telling friends and neighbors about county jobs. During the first month over 100 applications for examinations were received from persons who first found out about the job from a county employee.

Publications, such as "A Minute Please," issued by the Flint, Michigan, Civil Service Commission to announce and discuss the city's personnel procedures; "Lagniappe," issued by the

New Orleans City Civil Service Department; the monthly recruitment bulletin issued by the Washington State Personnel Board; and "The Housing Detective," issued by Region V, Federal Housing Authority, are but a means of developing this resource of our own employees.

GOVERNMENTAL AND PROFESSIONAL RESOURCES

ALERT CIVIL SERVICE officers have learned not to overlook possible assistance from governmental agencies in the community, other than those with which they have direct administrative relations. Many civil service agencies utilize the United States Employment Service as a posting place for examination announcements and as a place of deposit for application blanks. The Indiana State Personnel Division is, in addition, using these offices as local examining centers.

While, in a narrow sense, federal agencies, the Civil Service Assembly, and our fellow personnel agencies are not actually "community resources," still in a professional sense they are. Certainly, an alert public personnel administrator should know and utilize them where it is practicable to do so. Many of the federal agencies, such as the Department of Labor, the Department of Agriculture, the Social Security Board, the Public Health Service, and the Office of Education, have resources that are available to the civil service agency for the asking.

As for member agencies of the Civil Service Assembly, cooperation among them was the keynote for the founding of the organization. The Assembly's test exchange service and subject information files, for example, may well be considered a resource to public personnel administrators. A report for 1942 showed that 115 public personnel agencies, including 31 at the state level and 77 cities and counties, made use of the Assembly's test service. A total of 2,013 tests were sent out in response to 363 requests. According to the report, nearly all the tests used in this service are keyed. The use of subject matter and library material has also been steadily increasing.

RECREATIONAL FACILITIES

EMLOYEE COUNSELORS in Washington are finding it desirable to learn about recreational activities going on in the community

and to transmit that information to employees. Tremendous numbers of employees come to the nation's capital from all over the land, and they are in vital need of information which will help them adjust to their jobs, their surroundings, and their new modes of life. Employees not only need someone to whom they may go with their troubles; they need someone who will take an active interest in seeing to it that they get identified with the activities of their choice in the community. Nostalgia (just plain homesickness) can be averted in most cases if employees become identified quickly with church, hobby, or community activities.

At the local level, not much of this type of counseling is needed, for the roots of the employees are already in the community. In many of our large state services, however, it is found that, as soon as the new employee gets on the state payroll, he immediately begins to look for a transfer to be near home. Much of this restlessness could be avoided and a more stable working force assured if personnel agencies in our large units, which draw employees from a wide geographical area, would give close attention to seeing that new employees have opportunities to become identified with the community.

MISCELLANEOUS COMMUNITY RESOURCES

PERSONNEL OFFICERS, through knowledge of their own communities, have doubtless thought of, and used, many other community resources in their personnel programs. It is not the intention here to treat all such possibilities, but a few more can be mentioned briefly. Quite often neglected, but a resource that is capable of development, are a community's hospitals and clinics. Here is found a group of specialists generally available for examination assistance, both written and oral. Local hospitals might, during ordinary times, be developed to give medical and laboratory examinations to prospective employees. In the giving of practical demonstration tests, for dentists, as an example, clinics might be utilized as a source of subjects upon which candidates can demonstrate their skill in cleaning and treating teeth.

Some civil service agencies—notably in the federal government—are utilizing the investigators of credit institutions, such as retail credit

associations, and Dunn & Bradstreet, to assist in making investigations of prospective employees. Credit ratings are relatively inexpensive and, especially in the case of applicants for positions having fiduciary responsibility, may save considerable headache. More common means can, of course, be used, and it is surprising how much information about a prospective employee can be gained from a short talk with the neighborhood grocer.

There are miscellaneous groups in most communities, such as hobby and study clubs and the various women's social and philanthropic groups, which would not usually be regarded as public personnel resources. However, the personnel administrator should not overlook their possibilities when considering his public relations activities. In fact, every place where people gather and talk, or are talked to, is a potential resource, as the shrewd personnel administrator who posted examination announcements in beauty parlors undoubtedly knew.

IN THE FOREGOING, some of the community resources which have been and can be utilized by a public personnel administrator have been highlighted. Each community can and should be analyzed by the personnel administrator so that his agency can benefit to the greatest possible extent. The potential community resources available to any civil service agency can be determined only by study and observation, but once an agency begins utilizing some of the available resources, the potentialities widen and expand. In utilizing the various resources open to a public personnel administrator, it should be apparent that the use of them offers, in addition to technical or other valuable direct assistance, a very fine and fertile public relations field in which groups of citizens can be informed about public personnel work and objectives. The experience of many personnel administrators shows that those in the community who assist and work with them can be counted upon to exert their influence for the good of the merit system.

Credit Advice For City Employees

HARRY W. MARSH AND LOUIS E. YAVNER

PUBLIC EMPLOYEES, for various reasons that will subsequently be pointed out, have always been singled out for special attention by vendors of "easy credit." Inevitably, their resulting debt problems have required the consideration of public personnel administrators. This ever serious problem of employee indebtedness has now been aggravated by higher taxes and the increased cost of living. As a wartime measure to meet the problem in New York City, Mayor Fiorello H. LaGuardia last June approved increases in the salaries of New York's lower paid municipal employees and also established a credit counseling service to advise them on credit problems.¹

That the credit counseling service filled a vital need was demonstrated immediately by a flood of credit consultation requests. During the first three months of its existence the credit counseling service assisted 349 employees, representing practically every major city agency. Not only has the credit counseling service been of great help to many employees, but it has also proved to be such a valuable personnel administration aid that it will undoubtedly be continued as a permanent adjunct to the city government.

EXTENT OF EMPLOYEE INDEBTEDNESS

THE indebtedness of municipal employees has long been a cause of considerable concern in New York City. Investigations conducted by the Office of the Commissioner of

Accounts in 1911 and in 1936 disclosed that "jewelry lenders" and other loan sharks were preying upon city employees. The 1936 inquiry also revealed that city employees owed more than three million dollars on judgments which had been reduced to garnishment. Although some of the garnisheed employees were well-paid officials, including a \$25,000 a year county judge and a county commissioner who needed 150 years to complete his garnishment deductions, the great bulk was composed of sanitation workers, policemen, firemen, and clerks.

The number of garnishment executions and wage assignments filed against city employees has continued to increase since 1936, reaching its peak in 1942. In that year, more than 13,000 garnishment executions and wage assignments were filed. This is in sharp contrast with 7,000 garnishments in 1936, and less than 9,000 in 1932—a depression year.

The exact indebtedness of New York's approximately 190,000 employees is not known, but it is estimated to amount to more than sixty million dollars. The New York City Employees Retirement System and the Municipal Credit Union alone made 37,000 loans in 1942, amounting to almost ten million dollars. Between 1930 and 1942 retirement system loans increased from 5,410 loans a year amounting to \$1,092,330, to 25,153 loans amounting to \$3,668,700. Municipal Credit Union loans increased during this period in number from 7,069 to 12,024, and in amount from \$1,889,590 to \$6,045,469.

While certain groups of city employees are often the victims of loan sharks, most of them have enjoyed a plethora of cheap credit facilities offered by legal lenders. Names, addresses, salaries, and job locations of nearly 190,000 city employees are a matter of public information to any one who wants to know, through

¹ The staff of the counseling service is composed of Louis E. Yavner, Secretary, Department of Purchase, Frank Leuci of the staff of the Department of Investigation, Mrs. Edith Kelly, Miss Marie Palomini, Miss Sarah Lack, and Miss Florence Goldberg of the staff of the Department of Welfare, and Benjamin Steinberg, an examiner for the Municipal Civil Service Commission.

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LOUIS E. YAVNER is Secretary of the Department of Purchase, New York City.

publication in the so-called civil list. They are exposed to a continual barrage of credit advertising in civil service publications, leaflets circulated in offices and shops, and direct mail distribution of advertisements proclaiming, "It's So Easy to Borrow Here."

Many commercial lenders make lax investigations of loan applicants who are city employees. It is immaterial to them how many loans a city employee has outstanding or what his credit record is; the lenders know that they will recover ultimately—with the city government acting as their collection agent—since the law provides that city employees may be garnished. The garnishment costs the city approximately three dollars per execution.

It may seem that many city employees have followed literally Artemus Ward's advice: "Let us all be happy and live within our means, even if we have to borrow the money to do it with." Although the number of borrowers is large, standing by itself, the actual number of employees whose salaries are garnished is only approximately 3 per cent of the total. Moreover, we have found, most loans are made for worthy purposes: to pay medical and hospital bills, to provide for educational expenses, and to purchase necessary household goods. The mere act of borrowing money does not indicate insolvency, and it should be borne in mind that borrowing may not only be necessary sometimes but may also be good business. However, the pressure of financial distress often has a deleterious effect upon the morale and efficiency of employees. New York's city administration recognizes that by aiding its employees to solve their personal financial problems it is contributing to the quality of municipal services.

ESTABLISHMENT OF CREDIT COUNSELING SERVICE

IN PRINTED leaflets distributed last June with their salary checks to all city employees, Mayor LaGuardia announced his establishment of the credit counseling service, "to advise and help those relatively few city employees who are in serious financial difficulties or who have been imposed upon by loan sharks, and to give credit advice to all city employees who may desire such advice so that they may avoid getting into difficulty."

The chief functions of the service are to

advise city employees how to manage their financial affairs, consolidate their debts, and adjust their budgets within the limits of immediate pressures. These functions have been carried out thus far largely through personal interviews with employees seeking advice. The credit problems of some city employees are insoluble and no amount of advice could be of immediate assistance; but in many cases the employees merely need outside stimulus and encouragement to work out their problems themselves.

Not all the employees who visited the credit counseling service sought assistance because of debt problems. Of the 349 employees who received interviews during the first three months, 74, or 21 per cent, had no outstanding debts. Most of them requested information about available credit facilities. Others asked for advice about mortgages and FHA adjustments. Some requested legal advice about their domestic problems; these last were referred to the Legal Aid Society.

The other 275 employees had debts totaling \$240,146—an average of \$873 per person—and one third of them were being garnished. A distribution table showing the salary ranges and amount of indebtedness of these employees follows:

INDEBTEDNESS OF 275 EMPLOYEES INTERVIEWED

Annual Salary Range	Number of Employees	Per Cent of Total	Average Amounts of Indebtedness
Under \$1,000.....	3	1.1	\$ 99
\$1,001 to \$1,500.....	16	5.8	253
\$1,501 to \$2,000.....	71	25.8	499
\$2,001 to \$2,999.....	101	36.8	748
\$3,000.....	67	24.4	1,542
\$3,001 to \$4,000.....	15	5.4	1,190
Over \$4,000.....	2	.7	2,250
	275	100.0	\$ 873

Although the total number of employees interviewed is still too small to permit drawing final conclusions, it is significant that only about 7 per cent of the indebted employees earned less than \$1,500 annually. This fact may relate to a frequent statement by social workers and consumer credit analysts: the poorest paid employees usually cannot obtain credit even from the relatively high cost licensed lenders, and must often resort to loan sharks. The sociological implications of the fact that 67 per cent of the indebted employees earn more than \$2,000 per year require extensive discussion which is not practicable in this article.

It may be observed that this group represents the best credit risk and, therefore, is more attractive to money lenders. It is also well established that the buying habits of employees earning these salaries have been most intensively cultivated by American business and especially by installment sellers. The need for educating the average citizen concerning his responsibilities to live within his income applies mainly to this middle group.

REASONS FOR INDEBTEDNESS

LACK of reserves for meeting hospital and medical bills was the reason employees gave most frequently for their indebtedness. Most of these employees, representing 35 per cent of the total number interviewed, refused to use the municipal hospitals because they were under the impression that these were for paupers and not for salaried employees. They failed to join a hospitalization service because they "couldn't afford it," or because "it isn't compulsory."

Mismanagement and failure to understand budget concepts were the primary reasons for the difficulties of 25 per cent of the indebted employees. The counselors learned that employees usually plan on the basis of their annual salary classification, rather than on their net salary receipts. Many employees fail to consider pension deductions, withholding taxes, house fees, endowments, and membership affiliations which are either deducted from their checks, or are payable immediately upon its receipt. In some departments, uniforms and upkeep cost about \$200 a year. After deducting all these items, a policeman or a fireman has a real income of about \$2,400 a year and not \$3,000.

Managing money is an art never learned by some. This group includes employees who gave only a hazy reason for their indebtedness. In a state of perpetual debt, they continually borrow additional sums to refinance existing loans. In such cases, the counselors have attempted to help the employee to develop an insight into the cause of his problem and to impart to him a realistic viewpoint about money management.

About 3 per cent of the employees interviewed admitted that their indebtedness arose from excessive gambling or drinking. Shrug-

ging his shoulders, one employee explained that "the giddyaps got me." In some of these cases, with the employee's permission, the counselors conferred with other members of the family to prepare an effective budget.

Co-makers against whom judgments had been entered upon the default of the borrower accounted for 12 per cent of those interviewed. Very seldom were they able to recover all or part from the defaulting borrower. Most of them were garnisheed, as a result, and the decrease in their net income led them to borrow in turn.

Installment buying of furniture, household goods, and clothing is a common practice among city employees. For many it has meant indebtedness from the time of their marriage. Among sanitation and transportation employees, policemen, and firemen, this problem is particularly acute. The counselors found that a number of companies whose methods are barely within the law specialize in making installment sales to employees in these groups who are more readily accessible to salesmen than other city employees.

Other reasons for indebtedness, offered less frequently, but none the less real, are: the son who needs money to come home on furlough, the daughter's wedding, the unpaid income tax, the arrival of a new baby, the college tuition, the moving expenses, and the man who "done wants to go on my own vacation because my wife done gone on her own."

ORGANIZATION AND PROCEDURES

POLICIES of the credit counseling service are determined by a committee appointed by the Mayor. The committee consists of the President of the Municipal Civil Service Commission, the City Comptroller, and the Commissioner of Investigation. Cornelius F. Collins, retired General Sessions Judge, serves as a volunteer legal adviser where city employees have been victimized by loan sharks or others.

At the inception of the service, the Department of Welfare assigned two intake interviewers to act as part-time credit counselors. The great number of requests by city employees for advice necessitated increasing the staff to four full-time counselors, all of whom are on loan from the Department of Welfare. The counselors selected were all experienced

in dealing with credit problems. In their Department of Welfare work they had demonstrated an ability to meet similar problems sympathetically but objectively.

Appointments for credit counseling are made at the convenience of the employees seeking advice. It was arranged at the outset that, with the permission of their supervisors, employees would be allowed to make appointments with the credit counselors during official working hours. Few employees have availed themselves of this privilege; most of them have preferred to come, with or without an appointment, during their lunch periods, during vacation, after work, or on days off. Many have expressed concern about letting their supervisors know of their credit difficulties.

The first rule of the counseling service has been, therefore, that the counselors are to discuss an employee's personal credit problems with him privately and confidentially. No reports are made to the employee's department for its personnel files. For its own work and statistical records, the counseling service has devised two forms. One is a 5"x8" card, filed alphabetically, which contains an identification of the employee, a brief summary of his problem, and the suggested solution. The other record is a detailed "interview report." Filed numerically, this report provides identification data and specific information about the employee's dependents, garnishments, indebtedness, resources, and budget, as well as a description of the cause of his problem, an adjusted budget, the counselor's comments, and the action taken. The interview report is filled out either during the interview or at its conclusion, depending upon the counselor's judgment as to whether the employee might become constrained by observing the preparation of a formal, detailed record. Where an employee's problem is complicated or has many ramifications, a narrative report similar to a social work agency case record is prepared.

Records are kept in considerable detail, partly because effective counsel cannot be given without a full knowledge of the facts, and partly in order to accumulate a body of statistical and other information which will guide the future development of the counseling service and indicate what collateral studies would serve the welfare of city employees.

City employees, like most people, are reluctant even when they appear voluntarily to discuss freely those habits or patterns of living which tend to result in financial or other maladjustments. Skillful and sympathetic probing is almost always necessary before the relevant facts are revealed. After obtaining the basic facts recorded in the interview report, the counselor's procedures may vary with each case.

Indebted employees are primarily concerned with effecting a consolidation of their debts into one loan from a commercial lending agency, in order to reduce the amount of each periodic installment payment. The counselors must learn the management methods and resources of these employees, in order to determine how much credit they can afford. In some cases a solution other than consolidation must be found.

Where consolidation is the indicated solution the counselors explain what credit facilities are available, the comparative rates of interest, delinquency penalties, costs of loan insurance, co-maker requirements, and other factors which determine the selection of the lending agency most likely to suit the requirements of a particular employee. Sometimes, by telephoning several of the employee's creditors, the counselor is able to effect a revised payment schedule without a refinancing; this is particularly true of the small loan companies, which also usually agree to a stay of pending legal proceedings upon the request of the counselors.

Most consolidation referrals are made to the Municipal Credit Union, but they have also been made to the other leading loan agencies. The major lending agencies in the city have taken a helpful interest in the credit counseling service. On their part, the counselors have impressed upon employees for whom adjustments have been made their continuing responsibility for making timely payments in accordance with their agreements. Frequent discussions between the counselors and the representatives of major loan agencies have resulted in the establishment of a good relationship with the community and its credit facilities.

Requests are sometimes received for immediate financial assistance to meet emergency situations. In some instances recommended

insurance adjustments have provided sufficient cash to meet the emergency. In other worthy cases the counselors, have enlisted the cooperation of hospital social service departments in effecting reductions in hospital bills and extending "due dates." Several newly appointed provisional employees failed to receive their salary checks for more than a month because of technical regulations and in their cases the counselors were able to have special payrolls prepared immediately, eliminating the need for borrowing. In some cases it was arranged for employees to be assisted through departmental "welfare funds."

A small group of employees, particularly in the Department of Hospitals, earn salaries which approximate public assistance grants. They cannot obtain credit through legitimate channels because of their low income. Upon the suggestion of the credit counselors some of these employees have at least partly solved their financial problem by reducing rent through assuming responsibility for janitorial services, by obtaining dependency allotments where eligible, or by joining the household of a relative. Where such adjustments were impossible, the employees were referred to a public agency for supplementary assistance.

The credit counselors do not do social service case work. Where deep-seated emotional or family adjustment problems have been encountered, the employees have been referred to an appropriate private social service agency. These agencies have extended full cooperation. Other agencies which have been of assistance to the credit counselors are the Federal Housing Authority, the Home Owners Loan Corporation, savings banks, federal mortgage companies, the Legal Aid Society, and the Army and Navy relief organizations. Their thorough knowledge of the available community resources has been invaluable to the credit counselors, and has often resulted in quick help to city employees.

THE LOAN SHARK PROBLEM

Loan sharks of all varieties prey on the lower paid city employees. Information given to the credit counselors by employee-victims has indicated the existence of several well-organized gangs of loan sharks who specialized in dealing with sanitation and transportation

employees, whose work is such as to make them readily accessible to this type of solicitation. Other employees told how they had been fleeced by illegally operating jewelry lenders. The credit counselors lack the power and resources to investigate such cases. Loan shark cases, accordingly, have been referred to the city Department of Investigation which has already examined several hundred witnesses in this connection. Through cooperation with the offices of the District Attorneys, such cases will be prosecuted as soon as the necessary evidence is complete.

One employee's experience encompassed many of the usual loan shark variations. His case history follows:

Mr. E borrowed from several legal lenders as a result of his wife's illness between 1938 and 1940. The illness continued, and he needed \$5 to pay a doctor's bill. He was referred by a co-worker to a loan shark with whom he made an agreement to repay within a week \$6 for a \$5 loan. At the end of the week, new obligations incurred incident to the illness prevented him from making repayment. The loan shark agreed to take \$1 as interest and \$6 the following week. When Mr. E was not able to pay he was told that \$7 was due in two weeks, \$8 in three weeks, and so on. Eventually \$10 became the principal with \$12 payable within a week. Mr. E continued to pay interest only when he was able. The debt finally amounted to a \$50 principal with \$10 interest payable within one week, \$20 interest in two weeks. The loan shark now began to harass and intimidate Mr. E and his wife. To rid himself of this involvement, E inquired of co-workers about a larger loan. He was referred to a jewelry lender who gave him a ring allegedly worth \$300. The jewelry lender explained that since Mr. E could have the ring without collateral, by simply signing a receipt, he suggested that Mr. E take it to a nearby pawnbroker who would lend him more than 50 per cent of its value; Mr. E could pay back the jewelry lender in \$5 instalments at a later date. Mr. E signed the receipt and took the ring. He was given \$25 by the pawnbroker. He was angered and made no payments. Three months later he found the jeweler had entered judgment against him for \$501. The receipt he had signed was a confession of judgment in that amount.

Another case combined a number of the employee problems which were encountered by the counselors:

Mr. and Mrs. P separated temporarily because Mr. P had lost so much money in gambling that his outstanding debts amounted to \$1,800. His salary was insufficient to maintain the family and also meet the payments on so large an obligation. They "talked things over" and decided that Mrs. P and the child would stay with her parents and Mr. P would stay with his aunt. The relatives agreed and the separation was effected. Mrs. P felt that when the debts were repaid she would be willing to reestablish their home. Both were anxious to consolidate the debts, alleviate the pressure

from creditors, and become a reunited family. The counselor helped to arrange a \$2,000 rehabilitation loan, to be repaid at the rate of \$50 per month. The family, after planning a budget with the counselor, re-established the household.

Effective budgeting was the main accomplishment for the following case:

Mr. C's wife's operation expenses made it necessary for them to borrow. The family never followed a budget, and found it difficult to live on the reduced income. Meanwhile Mr. C was garnished on a note which he had co-signed. This began a series of pyramided loans, which eventuated in paying \$93 monthly on three judgments. There was also a fraud judgment to be executed immediately. The counselor was able to stay execution until a rehabilitation loan for \$3,250 was granted. A budget plan was worked out with the family which made it possible for them to apply \$73 a month to debt payment.

An example of the kind of case referred to private social agencies follows:

Mrs. B is a widow with two children. The children had been living with their grandmother in the South while Mrs. B worked as a hospital helper. She occupied a furnished room. Because of illness, the grandmother could no longer keep the children. Mrs. B applied for an apartment in a housing project; her application was approved, but she had no furniture and she asked the advice of the credit counselor about borrowing \$200 for furniture. A review of her management and preparation of a budget revealed that her income allowed only a subsistence standard comparable with the public assistance budget. She could not possibly spare any money for furniture without jeopardizing her own health and that of her children. The credit counselor discussed obtaining second-hand furniture with Catholic Charities, to which Mrs. B was referred. Later Mrs. B advised the counselor that she had been provided with the necessary furniture without having incurred any debts.

IN CONCLUSION, it can be said that the credit counseling service has already demonstrated its practical value to city employees and to the city administration. There is no doubt but

that it will have a beneficial effect in stimulating the morale of city employees, with a consequent improvement in the quality of their services. It will be an important purpose of the counseling service to evaluate the results of advice given in terms of the effect it has upon the morale of the employees concerned. These employees will be reinterviewed as time goes by to determine how effectively the proposed solutions have worked out in practice.

While important remedial work is accomplished through personal interviews with employees in difficulty, the greater preventive value of widespread education about credit problems is not being ignored by the credit counseling service. A series of educational leaflets for distribution to city employees is already planned, as well as periodic broadcasts over WNYC, the municipal broadcasting station. The experience of the credit counseling service indicates that among the points which must be stressed in such an educational program are: the value of having a domestic budget; the importance of meeting financial obligations on time; the danger in neglecting to discuss with creditors the possibility of an adjustment in the payment schedule; the importance of carefully reading the terms of installment contracts; and the availability of low-cost community and hospital facilities which, if used by the employee, will reduce the need for incurring debts.

Finally, there should be frequent reiteration of Mayor LaGuardia's advice: "Don't borrow unless you absolutely must. If you must borrow, first talk it over with your family and the city credit counselors."

Reinstating Public Employees After Military Service

DAN S. MOORE

AN IMMEDIATE PROBLEM of public personnel officers, which promises to become more knotty as the months pass, arises out of the situation in which the numerous governmental employees now in military service properly look forward to reinstatement in their former civilian positions. The problem is immediate, for, owing to one reason and another, the military services are already sending back to civilian life thousands of veterans monthly, and reliable information shows that many are presenting themselves to their former governmental jurisdictions for reemployment. That the question of how best to meet this situation will become more urgent as major military goals are reached goes without saying.

From a managerial point of view, the present situation allows a reconsideration of the policies of leave of absence for military service, which have been established by legislation or otherwise in most jurisdictions, with the goal of making such policies as complete, fair, and workable as possible. The current period also allows and demands the establishment of the administrative systems for veteran reinstatement so as to meet the larger problems to come, as well as serve the immediate needs.

It was with these considerations in mind that a portion of the program of the Thirty-fifth Annual Conference on Public Personnel Administration, sponsored by the Civil Service Assembly, was devoted to an intensive exploration of the various questions and problems involved in veteran reinstatement.¹ Attention

¹ The Conference session on these reinstatement problems consisted of five concurrent panel discussions in which representatives of more than seventy-five personnel agencies participated. This summary, however, is based largely on discussions that took place among representatives of state and federal jurisdictions.

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was directed particularly at the terms of the reinstatement rights of those on military leave and the period after military discharge during which such rights may be exercised. Also given consideration were such questions as reinstatement examinations, the rights of employees serving in the veterans' absence, and general questions of veteran preference. This article endeavors to summarize the discussion of these problems and to indicate the general tenor of sentiment among personnel administrators concerning possible solutions to the problems presented.

OPERATION OF PLANS

ALTHOUGH MOST personnel administrators seem to agree that a time limit should be established within which the returning veteran shall apply for reinstatement, there is a wide divergency of opinion with regard to the duration of the time period. Some jurisdictions, in their present rules, call for application within thirty days of honorable discharge. Others allow forty days, forty-five days, ninety days, or six months, while one or two establish no time limit.

Most jurisdictions, at present, require that the veteran have an honorable discharge or be discharged under honorable conditions as a necessary prerequisite for application. One or two, however, feel that in certain unusual cases reinstatement should be permitted even though the veteran has been dishonorably discharged.

Every jurisdiction which has a time limit requires that the period begin to run from the date of discharge, although it is generally agreed that this practice will produce serious problems in connection with personnel retained in the armed forces for the policing of occupied territories after the war is over. It is natural to assume that there will be a great

demand from many quarters for the immediate release of personnel from the armed services as soon as the peace is signed. Obviously, the release of millions of men and women from the armed services in a short period of time will have a profound effect not only on public personnel jurisdictions, but on the whole economic system of the countries involved. Many students of the matter have grave doubts about the ability of the economic system to survive the terrific impact of a mass release of service men and women. It is doubtful that the services would approve a plan involving the gradual discharge of personnel, but it is equally certain that such a system would make it far easier for public and private enterprise to assimilate the manpower now in arms.

TESTING PROGRAMS

THERE IS CONSIDERABLE DISAGREEMENT on the question of formal testing programs to determine the returning veteran's capability of performing the work of his position. Nearly all jurisdictions have provisions in the appropriate acts or regulations which require that the applicant be physically and mentally capable of performing the work, but there is wide variation in the methods to be used to determine the presence or absence of capability. Some agencies prescribe a physical examination for all returning veterans, while at least one requires such an examination only in those cases where the veteran has been discharged for physical reasons. Others take the attitude that the veteran must be reinstated regardless of his physical or mental condition. If it then develops that he is unable to perform his work, these agencies require that he be removed from his position in the manner usually followed in such cases. Several jurisdictions permit an extension of time for reinstatement so as to provide a reasonable period (usually one year) in which a disabled veteran may be rehabilitated.

One or two agencies contemplate the establishment of special boards or commissions to review the physical or mental condition of returning veterans in order to determine whether or not they are to be reinstated. No agency has, as yet, established any system to determine: (a) whether protracted military service has caused the loss of knowledges and skills possessed by the veteran before he entered

the service; or (b) whether or not service in the armed forces has given the veteran new skills not possessed by him prior to his military service. Strangely enough, there seems to be very little interest in this field on the part of public personnel administrators.

A few agencies seem to feel that the job of determining the veteran's ability to perform his work should be placed upon the operating department rather than on the central personnel agency. This point of view has been attacked on the grounds of inconsistency, since one of the primary functions of the central personnel agency is to determine, through appropriate tests and measurements, the ability—potential or actual—to perform the work. Most administrators feel that the responsibility for this particular phase of the program must rest with the personnel agency, although they realize the potential danger to a central personnel system inherent in this particular function. One or two agencies are planning to retire returning veterans who are physically or mentally disqualified for their work under a pension plan or a retirement system, which will complement any federal pension system which may be established after the war.

VETERAN REHABILITATION

DESPITE THE FACT that some jurisdictions are preparing now for active participation in rehabilitation programs for veterans, there is a definite feeling in the public personnel field that this matter is only remotely connected with the personnel function itself. Some administrators feel that the development and growth of this particular work may force the personnel agency to become a veterans' rehabilitation unit with the personnel function subordinated or completely lost. This point of view must be contrasted with that held by others who feel that the personnel agency cannot possibly afford to permit itself to be accused of failing to take care of the veteran. This idea is supplemented by the opinion that a rehabilitation program is an essential activity of the personnel agency. Several jurisdictions have established special units to plan rehabilitation programs now, while nearly all are represented on postwar planning committees or councils at the appropriate governmental level. The extent of the problem which exists here can defi-

nately be lessened if the military services establish the previously mentioned systematic programs for the discharge of personnel.

PROMOTION IN ABSENTIA

AN ATTITUDE of anxiety prevails in all agencies about the feeling of veterans toward promotional examinations given while they are in the service. While this is only one of the major problems concerning the rights of employees while in the service, it is a very important one. One agency gives employees in the armed services promotions and salary increases while they are on leave. This is obviously possible only because of the fact that promotion in this particular agency is based entirely on service ratings and not on tests. Where the statute or ordinance establishing the personnel system requires written or performance tests for promotion, there seems to be no satisfactory method to protect the service man's opportunity for promotion. The recasting of an entire promotional examination program extending over several years in order to take care of the service man seems to be a task of insurmountable complexity. At least, no agency has been able to offer any solution to it.

This particular problem, among others, may be simplified slightly if the agencies are correct in assuming that many persons now on military leave will not return. This idea rests primarily on the theory that many veterans will prefer to go into other fields after their discharge. Frankly, promotion in *absentia* would seem to constitute a bald admission by the personnel agencies that the public service expects to suffer through lowered personnel standards as a direct result of efforts made to take care of the returning veteran.

LEAVE AND OTHER RIGHTS

MANY JURISDICTIONS allow the service man credit for sick leave for the time he is in the military service. These credits are allowed regardless of the location of the service man or his physical condition while in the service. No jurisdiction, however, permits the accumulation of annual leave based on military service. There seems to be a fine distinction here, but no effort has been made to erase it so that credits could be allowed for both types of leave.

Jurisdictions having retirement systems have taken varying attitudes toward the solution of the peculiar problems posed by the absence of personnel on military service. Some will permit the returning veteran to be reinstated in the pension system if he pays the contribution due for the time he was away. Others permit full credit for the time in military service without payment of any kind. One agency limits the time credit a veteran may obtain to not more than six months out of any twelve.

REALLOCATION OF POSITIONS

NO DIFFICULTY is foreseen in taking care of the veteran who returns to find that his position has been reallocated to a higher class. Despite the fact that some civil service laws require the incumbent of a reallocated position to pass a promotional examination, there is no general feeling that such a statutory provision will be applied to returning veterans. It seems wise, however, to consider the legal implications of this idea and to plan now for whatever statutory changes may be necessary to achieve the desired result.

Where the returning service man finds that his position has been reallocated downward or abolished, there will exist a completely different point of view. Personnel administrators are seriously worried about this problem and in many cases are making every legitimate effort to avoid it. Since complete avoidance is obviously impossible, steps should be taken now to determine what can be done for the veteran who returns to find such a situation. It is hard to believe that the returning service man will be satisfied with reinstatement in a lower class of position or with a nebulous right to reemployment in his former class, when and if vacancies occur. Whatever steps are considered to solve this problem should be carefully and earnestly prepared so as to avoid a further lowering of personnel standards by the removal, through layoff or other means, of non-military personnel of proved competence.

LAI-D-OFF PERSONNEL

CONSIDERABLE DIFFICULTY can be anticipated in absorbing personnel laid off in order to reinstate veterans. There is in some quarters optimistic feeling that the condition of the personnel labor market for several years after

the war will be such as to simplify the placement of laid-off employees. It is difficult to establish the basis for this feeling of optimism among public personnel administrators, although it seems to stem from the opinion that private industry will require large numbers of workers in order to supply the backlog of consumer demand which is ever increasing under wartime price control and rationing systems. This theory probably accounts for the opinion already mentioned that a considerable number of veterans will not apply for reinstatement.

In spite of the prevalence among personnel administrators of this post-war boom idea, many economists and private business men have an exceedingly jaundiced outlook on the matter. It seems reasonable to assume that conditions immediately after the war will actually lie somewhere between the two extremes.

IMMEDIATE PROBLEMS

MOST JURISDICTIONS admit that their record systems are rapidly becoming inadequate insofar as reinstatement of service men is concerned. The inadequacy seems to increase in direct ratio to the lengthening of the war. Jurisdictions in the United States are rapidly approaching the beginning of the fourth year in which reinstatement rights have been exercised, while Canada, of course, has had them for a much longer period. There are many facets to this problem, including the identification of the veteran himself, the identification of his position, and the determination of which veteran has priority when two or more enter the service from the same position.

Those agencies which have maintained position-identification systems are convinced that they will be of considerable value in accomplishing the reinstatement of the returning veteran, while those agencies which have no such system are equally convinced that position identification is costly, cumbersome, and of little practical value. There is such definite disagreement on this point that it seems wiser to leave its discussion to other articles and other times. The one point of general agreement in connection with position-identification systems is that they are of value only where the statute or regulation requires that the veteran be reinstated in a position identical to the one he left to enter the service.

Any jurisdiction lacking a record system which identifies the veteran, the date he entered the public service, and the date he entered the military service seems certain to be confronted by tremendous difficulties. It is equally obvious that the record system must be carefully maintained and kept current. Apparently, this particular part of the military problem is one in which there is need for assembling information on the various methods in use so that the data thus obtained could be made available to all jurisdictions. Another field in which a study of this kind would be of value is that concerning multiple reinstatements. These will certainly arise where two or more persons, each of whom possessed civil service status, have left the same position in the public service to enter the military forces. The problem is complicated by the fact that each employee may have had more than a year's service in the position before leaving it. It is generally agreed that the prior right to reinstatement rests with the first incumbent to enter the armed forces, but no one knows what to do with the second or third incumbent. Whether or not his rights precede those of other persons has not been determined. Here is potential grief of the severest kind unless the problem can be solved before the war is over.

POTENTIAL LEGISLATION

ALL OF THE PROBLEMS involved in this matter are so serious and affect so many individuals and so many activities of government, that the whole picture apparently transcends the field of public personnel. There is grave doubt that public personnel agencies alone should be expected to solve the problems. Some personnel administrators feel that the problem is so large and will be so acute that it can be solved only by a broad program of veteran rehabilitation and employment, not confined to public agencies alone, but concerned with all forms of employment and rehabilitation. In other words, veteran preference should be made applicable in all fields of employment, whether public or private. This idea has its basis in the Selective Service Act and its amendments, but it needs clarification and elaboration now. Many veterans will return to find their former employers no longer in business; many others will return to find completely dif-

ferent forms of business where they once worked. In the field of public agencies, there will unquestionably be new activities and activities which no longer exist. No government, regardless of the level on which it works, can expect to differentiate in its treatment of veterans between those formerly employed by it and those employed privately.

The time seems ripe for legislation at all levels to consolidate all of the phases of veteran reemployment and rehabilitation, and thus consider the matter as a whole rather than as many separate problems. It is unfortunate that consideration of these matters today will inevitably involve them in irrelevant political considerations; it is even more unfortunate that they have been so involved since the war began. This, however, should not deter the responsible agencies of government from a proper and serious approach to the problem.

VETERANS' PREFERENCE

PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATORS generally are in thorough accord with public opinion in desiring completely adequate recognition

of the service rendered the country and its democratic institutions by the men and women of the armed services. They are as eager as anyone to accord every legitimate form of recognition to the returning service man or woman. There is, however, a feeling among personnel administrators that the demands for veterans' preference and other special forms of treatment will transcend all other considerations to such an extent as to make the operation of a bona fide merit system most difficult, if not impossible.

If any sincere effort is to be made in the public personnel field to maintain respectable standards for recruitment and selection, public personnel administrators and commissions should begin now a campaign of education and preparedness aimed at holding to a reasonable minimum the demands which will inevitably be made for veterans' preference. What is done between today and the end of the war will have a profound part in determining whether public personnel agencies continue to be merit systems or become agencies for the placement of veterans without regard to ability or skill.

Job Evaluation Through Point Rating

JOHN F. FISHER

WHILE PUBLIC agencies have been attacking the pay problem by way of position classification and class grading processes, many private agencies have adopted a quite different technique for coming to grips with the problem. This technique is known as "point rating" for the simple reason that the relative value of a position is indicated by the number of points it is allotted. The rapid personnel expansion and increased organizational complexity of many industries during the last few years have resulted in a substantial increase in the number of organizations using this device for pay determination. Quite recently, a small number of public agencies have also used point rating methods, although mostly on an informal and experimental basis. The advantages and disadvantages of point rating when applied to the problems of public agencies already have become the subject of a good deal of discussion and probably will evoke much more as time goes on. It might be of interest then to examine some of the more common principles and methods applied in this type of job evaluation.

It may be desirable for the benefit of the general reader to review briefly the practices usually followed in the public service in determining compensation. Positions are compared as to their likenesses and differences in duties and are grouped into classes which are intended to serve several purposes, of which establishing pay rates is one. In establishing consistent pay relationships classes are compared and evaluated, this process in some instances being facilitated through the adoption of a system of salary grades. In actual practice the pay determinations thus arrived at are not based solely upon evaluation of the relative worth of classes. They also reflect a melange of economic, social, and political considerations such as liv-

ing costs, market rates for different classes, strength of organization of particular groups of workers, and the like.

GENERAL ASSUMPTIONS

IN CONTRAST to the customary position-classification procedures, the point rating systems of job evaluation used in private industry are designed to accomplish only one purpose: the establishment of a rational basis for compensation. It is entirely possible that, as a by-product, the job information acquired to attain this primary end could, if desired, be used in connection with personnel selection, promotion, or other purposes, as well. But this would involve processes having no direct relationship to those involved in point evaluation. Since only the one objective is sought, point rating evaluation is not directly concerned with the problems of identifying relationships based on the subject-matter of work or of grouping positions on this basis. The only concern of point rating is job worth, and the procedure operates on the hypothesis that relative worth can be measured by (1) identifying and defining those factors which are believed to cause positions to have worth, (2) weighing the relative importance of these factors, (3) measuring the relative value of positions in terms of the yard-sticks which the factors provide, and (4) converting the measurements into terms of money.

To indulge in a generalization, it may be said that point rating systems are founded on the reasoning that a whole problem can be broken down by means of analysis into simple problems which can be solved one at a time. Thus, the proponents of point rating reason: "If we make the effort we can identify those factors which give a position worth. At first blush these factors may seem too intangible for any practicable application in measuring

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job value but by analysis, discussion, and definition they will become clothed with meanings that are commonly understood. By this process the whole problem of determining the worth of one type of work as compared with another can be broken into its components and more easily solved."

This reasoning implies that there should be a consistent relationship between all of the positions in a given organization in terms of the factors which give them value. Since they are all measured against these standards of value, the money values which they derive through this measurement should represent a strictly rational and consistent determination of relative worth. The pay of one occupational group will not reflect the effect of a surplus or shortage of workers. Neither will the pay of another group reflect the successful efforts of a strong labor organization, nor, if the group is unorganized, the strong bargaining position of the management. Theoretically, labor's share of a company's income would be distributed among the workers in strict accordance with the relative worth of each position. If, in reality, a shortage of workers at any time necessitated an increase in compensation for one or more occupational groups, that would be regarded as a temporary arrangement not affecting point values, and the rational relationship existing between all groups, as reflected by their point values, would still remain unchanged.

ELEMENTS OF JOB WORTH

LET US THEN TURN to a consideration of the factors upon which job measurements and point ratings might be based. Some organizations make ratings on as many as forty different job characteristics. Others use twenty or more. However, most companies base their grading plans upon ten factors or less. The factors used in several typical company plans are listed below.

Plan A

- Intelligence level
- Specialized training
- Experience on the job
- Physical requirement-speed
- Physical requirement-strength
- Physical requirement-dexterity

- Supervision exercised by occupant
- Responsibility for quality
- Responsibility for waste
- Responsibility for equipment
- Responsibility for small tools
- Disagreeable features of the job
- Hazards

Plan B

- Mentality
- Training
- Analytical ability
- Initiative
- Application
- Executive responsibility
- Monetary responsibility
- Responsibility for dependability and accuracy
- Personal requirements

Plan C

- Education
- Previous experience
- Training time
- Resourcefulness
- Versatility
- Physical or mental fatigue
- Quality requirements
- Responsibility
- Number of details
- Cooperation and personality

Plan D

- Mental requirements
- Skill
- Physical requirements
- Responsibilities
- Working conditions

A brief consideration of these plans brings out several points which merit discussion. There is much greater variety in the terms used in the plans to express the knowledge requirements of positions and the elements involved in utilizing knowledge than in the terms used to express the less complex factors, such as working conditions. Note the different ways in which the factor of intelligence is expressed. In plans A and D it is represented by a single term having a broad meaning. In plan B, however, not only the broad factor "mental-ity" but three components of intelligence—

"analytical ability," "initiative," and "application,"—are part of the plan. On the other hand, plan C makes much less provision for evaluating intelligence, although it is given limited expression in the factors "resourcefulness," "versatility," and the subjective term, "quality requirements." Also note that the requirement of job knowledge is covered by two factors in plans A and C, by one in plan B, and by the term "skill" in plan D. The latter word commonly embraces in its meaning not only occupational knowledge, but also the ability (both mental and physical) to apply it. Thus, we see in plan D a large number of varied attributes of job value contained in the two rather subjectively expressed factors of "mental requirements" and "skill."

In general, as the number of factors in a plan is increased the breadth of meaning of some or all of the factors is narrowed. It is obviously safer to express the components of a broad factor which is objectively measureable than the components of a broad factor which is complex with many variables. Thus, as in plan A, it is safer to express as factors the components of physical requirements in terms of speed, strength, and dexterity, than it is to attempt to express all of the concepts that are inherent in the meaning of "intelligence level." Thus, when a term which expresses a component of a broad and complex characteristic is used as a measurement of value care must be used to see (a) that there is no unintentional duplication between the term having a refined meaning and the broad complex of which it is a component (as there may be between the terms "analytical ability" and "mentality" in plan B), and (b) that other components of the same broad characteristic are not overlooked (as the components of intelligence appear to be in plan C).

In order to avoid these problems it appears that most companies have adopted plans involving the use of a small number of broadly defined factors. In some instances it appears that the factors are so broad and include such a congeries of work considerations that the purpose of their use in objectifying judgment is never attained. The ways in which such decisions may affect the validity of a plan suggest extreme caution in the selection and naming of factors of job worth.

WEIGHTING JOB FACTORS

THERE ARE OTHER considerations which influence the number and nature of factors to be established. Not the least of these is the problem of weighting the factors. Does anyone know how much of a worker's compensation is in return for the training he has acquired and how much is for the responsibilities he accepts? Or for the hazards he undertakes? If we can assume that workers are compensated according to the nature and degree of the demands that their jobs make upon them, then what part of their compensation is in return for each demand? These are some of the questions on which the formulators of a point rating plan must decide.

It is evident that the weight of any factor will be based upon the maximum possible number of points assigned to the factor in relation to the maximum possible number of points for all factors. It will also be based upon the range and distribution of points between the lowest and highest degree of the factor in relation to the range and distribution for other factors. The method followed in determining these point values for a group of factors will govern the weight which each one receives.

In determining the range of point values for the factors in a rating plan one of two approaches is generally followed. The two methods are quite different, both as to procedure and as to certain of the principles upon which they are based. Some practitioners distinguish them by designating the first as the "point system" and the second as the "factor comparison method," and although the term "point system" would seem to be misleading, because both methods involve the use of points, the two terms will be used for purposes of distinction. Within the general framework of each system there are many variations in practice and procedure from company to company.

THE "POINT SYSTEM"

THE "POINT SYSTEM" is characterized by the development and adoption of a scale for each of the factors in the rating plan. Each step on the scale is defined and the number of points assigned to each step definition is determined in advance. Examples of selected rating scales, with step definitions, may be seen in Schedule I.

SCHEDULE I. EXAMPLES OF FACTOR RATING SCALES

Plan A

Point Rating Scales for Factors of Education,
Previous Experience, and Training Time

Education	Credit Points
Grammar school.....	0
Two years of high school.....	2
High school graduation.....	4
High school and vocational school.....	6
College graduation.....	8
College graduation and technical school.....	10
<i>Previous Experience</i>	
None	0
One year.....	2
Two years	4
Three years.....	6
Four years.....	8
Five years or more.....	10
<i>Training Time</i>	
Very little.....	0
One month.....	2
Three months.....	4
Six months.....	6
Twelve months.....	8
Eighteen months or more.....	10

Plan B

Point Rating Scale for a Dexterity Factor

Gradations of Dexterity	Credit Points
None	0
Low	2
Below average.....	3
Average	4
Above average.....	6
Very high.....	8
Exceptional	10

Plan C

Point Rating Scale for Degrees of Responsibility for
Supervision

Definitions (somewhat abbreviated) of Steps in Responsibility	Credit Points
None	0
Directing and instructing a helper or employee of junior grade.....	2
Assigning tasks to small group under prescribed routines.....	4
Assigning tasks to moderate-sized group under prescribed routines.....	7
Directing a small group on routine work; responsible for maintaining production..	10
Directing a moderate-sized group on routine work.....	14
Directing several small groups or one large group on repetitive work.....	18
Directing a small group on specialized or varied work.....	22

Directing a moderate-sized group on specialized or varied work.....	26
Directing a large group on diversified work; or full responsibility for a small department.....	30
Full responsibility for the operation of a medium-sized department.....	35
Full responsibility for the operation of a fairly large department.....	40
Full responsibility for the operation of a major department.....	50

SINCE ONE of the values of the "point system" is said to be the objectivity provided through the medium of scale definitions, let us first give attention to some of the considerations involved in the formulation of such scales. The difficulties involved in expressing in objective terms all of the intangible elements which are contained in factors such as "responsibilities" and "mentality" have been suggested above. Obviously, if the task of defining the factor is difficult, the task of defining objectively the various degrees of the factor is many times more challenging. Particularly is this true when the definitions must be stated in the common terms by which the various degrees of the factors are expressed by employees.

It is not possible to develop precise scale definitions couched in job terms for a factor such as "mentality" or "intelligence level." There are too many significant components of such factors and it cannot be expected that all components will be represented to the same degree in a position. A position which requires a high degree of analytical ability might well require a moderate or low degree of originality. To be effective the scale definitions should be stated in terms which recognize such variations. If it is not possible to formulate precise definitions, it is necessary either to resort to the use of more general, and therefore more subjective, definitions, or to set up as factors the more significant components of the broad factors and to attempt to prescribe objective scale definitions for them. The scale definition given above for the "dexterity" factor is an example of the first, while that for "supervision of others" illustrates the second.

When general terms (moderate, average, and the like) are used to define the degrees of a factor, it is necessary to take further steps in order to clarify their meaning. For this purpose we find that job analysts frequently use

the titles of positions which they believe are descriptive of the several steps on the scale. In such cases positions are not being measured against the definitions for the degrees of a job factor but by a process of comparison with other positions.

The degrees of the factors of "training time," "experience," or "skill" are generally expressed in terms of the number of months or years necessary for a person with the required mentality to acquire the necessary specialized knowledge before assuming full responsibility for a job. Because of the many and varied concepts of what constitutes learning time, it is frequently found that a reasonable degree of consistency can be secured only through a process of estimating the training time for particular jobs and using these as reference points. This again is a comparative process rather than a measurement against an absolute scale.

Thus, it would seem that in large measure one of the most important attributes underlying the theory of the "point system" is not derived in its practical application. On the most important factors, and in many plans on other factors as well, positions are not measured in relation to objective and precise definitions which express the several degrees of each factor. Rather, because of the difficulty involved in defining degrees with sufficient exactitude and because of differences between raters in their understanding of the meaning of terms, decisions actually are based to a significant degree upon a process of position-to-position comparison.

A CONSIDERATION which has an equally important bearing upon the validity of end results is the matter of weighting factors and distributing the weights to the several degrees along the scale. Some companies set up much higher maximum point values for some factors than for others while other companies fix the same maximum of points for all factors. In the latter instance this does not necessarily mean that all basic factors have the same weight because for one factor a single expression of the factor may be used while for another several more refined expressions may be used. For example, a single broad factor of responsibility may be used in a plan in which each factor has a maximum weight of ten points while in the

same plan the factor of physical requirements is expressed by the three refinements of speed, strength, and endurance. Thus, physical requirements has a maximum point value of thirty while that of responsibility is only ten.

Where the practice is to weight factors differently, those factors relating to mentality, training, and experience are given the heaviest weight (usually 50 per cent or more); responsibility is given next importance (15-30 per cent); while physical effort and working conditions are considered of least significance (10-20 per cent). It is interesting to note that even in those plans used specifically for rating manual occupations the weight assigned to the latter factors is seldom more than one-fifth. The relative importance of the factors is also conditioned by the point value relationship which exists between the degrees of the several factors as well as by the manner in which the degrees are defined.

In distributing the weight of a factor among the several degrees of its scale the implications of the distributions are different when general definitions of scale degrees are used, as contrasted with the situation that results when the degrees are defined in specific terms. The point scale for the factor "responsibility for supervision," cited above, provides a good illustration of the inherent problem of fixing weights for precise scale definitions. The distribution of points must obviously be made on an arbitrary basis. There can be no orderly marshalling of fact and reason to sustain the contention that the relative difference between responsibility for directing a moderate-sized group on specialized work and on routine work is accurately reflected by a difference of twelve points, or that this difference is the same as that between directing a helper and directing a moderate-sized group on routine work. Furthermore, these point values are clothed with significance by the manner in which the points along the scale of degrees of one factor equate with the points along the scales of the other factors. In order to be consistent throughout, the relationship between factors established by their maximum point values must be reflected in an equivalent relationship between the point values for the several degrees of each factor. This problem cannot be solved merely by seeing that a proper numer-

ical relationship exists between the point values of the several scales. The point relationships will be meaningless if the scale definitions are not also equated so that a low or average degree of one factor will be in proper relationship to a low or average degree of another.

It was pointed out above that when degrees of a factor are defined in terms which in their practical application require the use of position titles to give them meaning, the determination of point values becomes, in the main, a matter of making position comparisons. This is, in effect, a ranking process. If this be true, it is doubtful that any worthwhile purpose is served by dividing the range from low to high into an arbitrary number of degrees and prescribing arbitrarily the point value which each degree will possess. If positions are ranked without regard to the fixed points on the scale it will be found that they will be distributed all along the scale from low to high. If they do appear to cluster at certain points there is no guarantee that these points will coincide with the points fixed upon the arbitrary scale. When factors having objective definitions of degrees are combined with those for which degrees are defined subjectively the added problem is encountered of equating the point values as between the scales for the two types of factors.

AFTER THE PROCESS of job evaluation and point allotment is completed, the results are analyzed and the money value to be attached to the point ratings is determined. The actual significance of the point allotments which have been made is dictated by the manner in which points are converted to dollars. Until this step is completed we know only that the position allotted, let us say, 125 points is more valuable than another allotted only 75 points. But we do not know how much more valuable it is until the money difference between the two is established. The determination of the money value of the point must be made with meticulous care, otherwise the whole effect of the preceding evaluation work may be distorted. For example, it is not unusual to find that the money value of a point becomes less as the number of points increases (i.e. positions allotted 100 points may be as-

signed a compensation rate of \$100 per month while those allotted 300 are assigned a rate of only \$225.) This might well cause the point values originally fixed for the several degrees of a factor to have a relatively higher real weight at the lower end of the scale than was actually intended and a relatively lower real weight at the upper end.

In summary, the "point system," if it is to be a really scientific device for measuring the value of positions, depends upon: (1) defining degrees of a factor so exactly that informed individuals, at least, can interpret their meaning uniformly; (2) establishing a point value for each degree of a factor which precisely reflects its importance in relation to the other degrees of the same factor and to the degrees of other factors; and (3) converting points to money in such fashion that this exact pattern of relationships will be reflected in the pay rates finally established. This undoubtedly requires painstaking effort, particularly so when a careless decision or assumption at any step can so vitally affect the validity of the whole plan.

THE "FACTOR COMPARISON METHOD"

THE "FACTOR COMPARISON METHOD" does not possess the refinements—possibly more elaborate than valid—of the "point system." Decisions as to point values in the factor comparison method are made through job-to-job comparisons with respect to each factor of the rating plan, rather than through measurement of each job against a scale. In order to establish the necessary reference points, the positions to be used as keys are first selected for comparison, ranking, and weighting. In selecting the key positions consideration is given to the following criteria: (1) They should be known to have pay rates which are in satisfactory alignment with the market. (2) They should be positions for which comparable wage data in the area can be obtained. (3) They should represent various levels of positions in the organization from low to high. (4) They should represent the major departments or functions of the organization.

The key positions are compared, factor by factor, by a rating committee (composed of operating supervisors, job analysts, and perhaps employee representatives), and are ranked in order of the committee's estimate of their

worth with respect to each factor. Next the total point values of each key position are established. This is done in several different ways, the most common of which is by basing the point value upon either the existing or proposed pay rate for the key position. Thus if the average hourly wage paid or proposed by a company for a particular key position is \$1.10, the total points allotted to that position will be 110.

The next step is to distribute the total points of each key position among the several factors in the rating plan according to its estimated importance. When the point distribution for each position is completed, the original ranking of the key positions on each factor is compared with the rankings which result from the point allocations. The end results of the two methods of evaluating one factor of a group of key positions are illustrated in Table I.

TABLE I. ILLUSTRATION OF RANKINGS OF ONE FACTOR IN THE "FACTOR COMPARISON METHOD"

Position	Ranking Resulting from Job Comparison	Point Allocation	Ranking Resulting from Point Allocation
A	1	70	1
B	2	56	2
C	3	36	5
D	4	40	3
E	5	38	4
F	6	36	5
G	7	36	5
H	8	32	8
J	9	27	9
K	10	27	9
L	11	20	12
M	12	19	13
N	13	25	11
O	14	9	14

Failure to obtain a closer correlation than the foregoing between the original ranking and the ranking resulting from point allocation may be due to any of several reasons. In the first place the original ranking may have been faulty. Or it may be found that the salary (and thus the total point value) of one or more key positions is decidedly out of line. In distributing points for such positions, the number allotted for a particular factor is thus greater or less than the position actually deserves.

This latter point is important. Let us assume that the occupants of one of the key positions have succeeded in obtaining a rate of compensation for the occupation so high

that it doesn't accurately reflect the actual work requirements of the position. It is evident that the distribution of credit points for this position will, for one or more factors, result in a point valuation which is higher than it should be. However, if the original rankings made by the rating committee are accurate, these disparities will show up when the two rankings are compared, and the position will then be eliminated as one of the key positions.

IT IS QUITE EVIDENT that in the process of distributing the total point allotments of the key positions the rating committee must give attention to a number of considerations. The relative weight of each of the factors should be tentatively decided. The relative spread of points between the lowest and the highest position on each factor should be estimated. (This spread will obviously be broader for the more heavily weighted factors than for those deemed less important.) An analysis should be made of the range of difference in requirements between the lowest and the highest positions on each factor. However, in considering and making decisions on these matters, safeguards are provided that are not available under the "point system." Decisions are made solely on the basis of comparisons between positions and this process furnishes a constant internal check against previous judgments. Decisions as to point allotments can also be checked in terms of the original ranking of key positions. If it is disclosed that errors have been made in point distributions, these can always be revised. It is usual practice to reconsider the point values allotted to the key positions by rating them again during the process of rating the remainder of the positions in the organization.

When the rating of key positions is accomplished, the rating committee (or the job analysts) proceed to the evaluation of other positions, but without reference to their existing salary. Usually all positions in an organization unit are rated one factor at a time, beginning with the factors having the heaviest weight. When this step is completed the results are tabulated and form the basis for review by division heads and other executives. Controversial cases are discussed and, if nec-

essary, restudied before the proposals are adopted.

TO SUMMARIZE, the "factor comparison method" involves a process of estimating the value of positions with respect to a given set of factors, using the values fixed for certain key positions as the frame of reference. Since the allocation of points to key positions provides the foundation for the whole process, it is essential that this step be accurate and free of bias. In general, the pay rates of key positions should be in line with the market. But when a pay rate of a key position does not reconcile with the evaluation results, the assumption is that the key position will be discarded, regardless of the market. In the "factor comparison" process there is a direct relationship between the value of a point and money, and, unlike the "point system," the point has the same money value throughout the whole range. This value is pegged in the beginning, so there is no need for further judgments as to the basis for conversion from points to money when the rating process is completed.

THE INFORMATION acquired and the results obtained as more public agencies try point rating plans should be extremely interesting. Although the complica-

tions inherent in the mechanics of the "point system" pose some very difficult problems, it may be that through hard work and careful analysis they can be overcome. The simplicity and more realistic assumptions of the "factor comparison method" seem to have considerable merit, and it is possible that use of this method would yield profitable results, not only in evolving equitable pay relationships but also, and of equal importance, in securing effective cooperative effort. A process based upon fixing responsibility for job evaluation in a committee of officials and employees, and furnishing it with a plan for getting its work done, may not be practicable for some governmental bodies because of their size and complex organization. Where it could be applied, however, it seems that several advantages might be derived. The pooling of informed judgment should be beneficial. In any procedure having to do with the human factor there is a limit in our ability to obtain results on a scientific basis, and at some stage group thinking and judgment must be relied upon. If the decisions of a representative group of officials and employees can be presented as the end results of an orderly system of analysis, it is conceivable that a good deal of the discord which so frequently accompanies the various steps in pay rate determination would no longer be present.

Developing Adequate Class Specifications

ROBERT I. BIREN

CLASS SPECIFICATIONS are the formal written record of a position-classification plan. These descriptions are intended to facilitate the operation of the plan by furnishing the data required for classification procedures, and to contribute to the other administrative processes for which position-classification forms a base.

Any attempt to determine the most desirable style, content, and arrangement for class specifications must begin with an examination of the legitimate functions of the classification plan itself. It seems clear that class specifications, which crystallize a procedure, should not be expected to carry burdens beyond those properly applicable to the procedure itself. In addition, it must be recognized that class specifications must be designed so that they are meaningful to a variety of audiences. These audiences include, among others, personnel technicians and administrators, departmental executives, legislators, and candidates for public positions.

The difficulty of a successful resolution of the problems raised by the several purposes of class specifications undoubtedly accounts for the changes which have occurred in the character of specifications during the past twenty years, the constant experimentation with what appear to be new forms, and the many papers on the topic to which those in attendance at Civil Service Assembly conferences are subjected. Despite the variety of forms into which class descriptions have been cast, the differences in approach and purpose are seldom, if ever, fundamental. It appears that persons working in this field have built up a procedure by accretion, rather than by a

thoroughgoing analysis of the problems concerned in position classification and specification preparation. There has been a great deal of reliance on the highly original work which was done at the beginning in position classification and considerable subsequent fuzzy thinking and expression on the subject.

IT WOULD APPEAR that we position classifiers have been guilty of an excess of reasoning by analogy. For example, it is often said, or at least implied, that personnel class specifications are comparable in objectivity, scope, and purpose to specifications for building materials and construction. This concept is a favorite one among persons who prepare test items for examinations in the public personnel field. Except for the somewhat unfortunate use of the word "specifications" in both instances, the most cursory inspection reveals that these two forms of summary description have very little in common. As a matter of fact, building specifications, or even recipes, for baking apple pies, are incomparably more objective than are typical class specifications. It seems that we should attempt to discover whether it seems feasible to make class specifications specify, in the sense that a recipe for apple pie does, or whether we should recognize inherent and insurmountable difficulties in the way of such attempts. For example, we may ask what percentage of class specifications—and thus of the class concepts they represent—are based on substances and procedures as objective and verifiable as "2 cups of flour," or "bake for 45 minutes at 450 degrees, Fahrenheit." Very few multiple-position class specifications, it would appear, are, or can be, truly objective descriptions of all the positions allocated to a class. If this line of reasoning has any validity, it may point to a new approach toward class specification writing.

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If the problem of presenting a class concept in writing is considered one of exposition rather than one of specification or exact prescription, it may be possible to solve a number of the more vexing recurring problems in this field. It seems plain that descriptions written with expository precision rather than in pseudo-scientific jargon would be more meaningful to most people who consult or use specifications. Emphasis upon writing complete and concise descriptions of position classes, utilizing all the literary devices available to accomplish this end, should serve best the purpose of class definition. Where the policy of formulating position descriptions in expository style is adopted, all persons concerned with operations dependent upon an understanding of class concepts should gain. For instance, the recruiting and selection expert would apply his specialized knowledge to the situation outlined for him in the description, rather than to a pre-digested summary of requirements prepared by persons with limited understanding of his specialization. Similarly, the training, pay, service evaluation, and transactions technicians would obtain the data to which they could apply their techniques. Legislators, administrative officials, and candidates for examination would find it possible to understand such expository statements. A large share of the mystery which has surrounded the classification process would be eliminated by such a procedure and, it may be assumed, much of the resentment of the process would thereby be avoided.

The thesis here presented should not be interpreted as advocating preparation of class descriptions in blank verse. Nor will looseness of expression or lack of form substitute for the absence of scientific data, where it is available. Those few objective measures applicable to class definitions should be retained and others of like status sought. Accepted occupational terminology should be used in a consistent manner. These things are no more, however, than should be expected in any satisfactory written exposition. The art of rhetoric and science of semantics should be utilized in any such procedure.¹

¹ All who struggle in this field should find aid in a recent article on semantics in position-classification by Ross Pollock, "Word Usage in Position-Classification," *Public Personnel Review*, October, 1943, pp. 266-73.

To summarize, it has been suggested here that the most adequate textual manifestation of a position-classification plan is a series of expository essays describing each class or grouping, and that such statements should be put in the form which is most often utilized for like attempts at expression. By abandoning the attempt to reconcile a form applicable to scientific and symbolistic presentation with the non-scientific data which is to be expressed, a more satisfactory statement for the purpose of class definition may be obtained. Once this has been accomplished, the efforts of those who utilize class concepts should be facilitated. In addition, the reaction of those who read them for information alone should be appreciably better.

PRIMARY PURPOSES OF SPECIFICATIONS

IF CLASS SPECIFICATIONS can ever be said to have a primary purpose, it is probably that of class identification for the allocation and reallocation of positions. The usefulness of the classification plan for all other operations is dependent upon its accuracy in this function and it seems reasonable to expect that whatever else may be accomplished through class specifications, accurate position allocation should be considered first in the design and utilization of these descriptions.

Efforts to accomplish this objective have run the gamut from extreme sectionalization of class specifications to the simplest expository statements concerning the class. The problem is complicated by the range of difficulty in accomplishing this purpose. Most single-position classes, certain trades classes, and a few other occupational groups may be defined with relative ease and accuracy. Ordinarily, however, specifications are pitched at a level which is not altogether adequate for the most difficult classification problems and which, perhaps, is over-elaborate for the simplest cases. This situation may be the basis for the statement by an experienced practitioner in the field that class specifications are unnecessary for the large majority of classes and should be prepared for these classes only as required for recruiting or other purposes. Such a lack of consistency in classification procedure as is suggested by the above statement does not have the approval of most workers in

the field. It thus seems likely that, whatever compromises may be required, classification plans will continue to place approximately the same emphasis on the crystallization of all class concepts, despite differences in the inherent difficulty of formulating such concepts. It may be, however, that a break with tradition on this phase of position classification will be attempted in the future, thereby allowing a better evaluation of the possibilities of the practices herein sponsored.

Class specifications are ordinarily required to act as a repository for a variety of information to be used in recruitment and testing. As a general rule, this material is not considered of much value by the persons who are responsible for selection procedures, and many explanations of this attitude have been advanced. Among these are the fact that class specifications are most often written by individuals who have had little or no contact with testing methods. In addition, it is pointed out that an adequate inclusion of technical selection material would be inconsistent with the degree of refinement and technicality used in the ordinary class specification and would be unintelligible to the majority of the persons who read class specifications. Several attempts have been made to solve this problem. In a few cases, qualifications have been expressed in terms of scores on standardized tests ("a score of 150 or more on the Army Alpha intelligence test") as a substitute for a statement concerning a desirable level of intelligence. The paucity of accepted tests and disagreement on the validity of arbitrary standards probably precludes any general acceptance of this procedure.

TWO OTHER APPROACHES to this problem illustrate diverse points of view. In one an effort is made to exploit in the classification process all the desirable knowledges, abilities, and skills. Such an attempt requires more than a repetition of tasks or operations involved in the positions, prefaced by indications that a "knowledge of" or "skill in" such operations is necessary. This approach contemplates thorough analysis of complex operations and interpretation of qualifications in terms of aptitudes as well as acquired traits. The degree of pertinency of particular personal

qualifications in such a scheme will, of necessity, vary greatly. This method thus assumes considerable knowledge of testing by the persons writing class specifications—a problem which has been met by one agency through in-service training enabling classifiers to obtain a satisfactory knowledge of testing techniques. In at least one large classification installation one member of the consulting staff, whose background was in psychometrics, was used almost exclusively to review and sharpen qualifications sections of the specifications.

A second method, suggested earlier, is based upon the premise that from accurate and complete descriptions of the work in a class selection specialists should be able to develop appropriate methods of recruiting and testing candidates for positions in the class. In class specifications written in this manner only basic and gross qualifications are listed, the stated requirement for a position being the passing of an appropriate examination. It may be argued that if the classification work is satisfactory, and all pertinent records are made available to the recruitment staff, these, coupled with field audits when necessary, will provide a better basis for testing than somewhat generalized statements regarding qualifications written by persons of limited knowledge in this field. At least, this method has the advantage of fixing responsibility for selection more directly in the testing staff.

Class specifications are, or should be, utilized in all other phases of personnel administration in which a knowledge of the work performed in a class is an important element. Two techniques which are based, or at least draw on, position-classification are service evaluation and employee training. Service rating plans draw upon specifications to indicate appropriate rating elements and to aid in determining standards. Training programs must be built upon a thorough understanding of job content and requirements. The information contained in class specifications is, therefore, essential to any training effort. A recent set of class specifications contained, in a section titled, "Desirable Training Upon Appointment," material relating specifically to training on the job. Although the material contained in this section was admittedly incomplete, it proved of some value in train-

ing new employees in the classes concerned. It is interesting to note in this connection that a personnel administrator of wide experience reviewed these descriptions and described the training section as definitely out of place, because it should be obvious that such material is extraneous to classification considerations. It seems, however, that it may be as reasonable to record training, service evaluation, and related data in a class specification as it is to record recruiting data therein. In each of these cases the information is derived from a knowledge of position content and serves a useful personnel purpose.

Adequate maintenance of a position-classification plan requires that class specifications be amended frequently. As a general rule, maintenance of these plans is slighted, and it is probably true that class specifications are not consistently modified so that they reflect current class concepts. Thus, there exist, after a time, three levels of classification currency: the actual aggregation of duties and responsibilities, the class concepts existing in the minds of classifiers, and the class specifications. The degree to which these concur depends upon the rate of change of positions in the jurisdiction, the time and effort expended on classification work, and the effectiveness of putting changes into specifications. This being true, it is probably well to avoid burdening specifications with material which may well change more rapidly than basic classification, even though this material may flow from the classification plan and be conveniently utilized as part of class descriptions. Factors which might be included in this general group include pay rates, age limits, and promotional lines. It is doubtful if indications of promotional possibilities serve any useful purpose in a class specification under modern concepts of promotional procedures.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

THERE HAVE BEEN a number of experiments in class specification writing in the past year or two. Particular mention may be made of two sets of class specifications. One is the first published specifications to come from the United States Civil Service Commission. These specifications are more complete than any others of which the author is aware.

Although cast in somewhat conventional form, each series is preceded by a series definition and the allocation of positions is aided by separate statements of allocation standards. These allocation standards appear to be informal class descriptions which would, in most instances, stand on their own. Although the reasoning behind this sort of dual presentation is not clear, it appears that, taken together, the specifications and standards provide considerable aid in allocating and reallocating positions.

It is also understood that the Navy Department is working on a form of class description which is based on responsibility distribution charts.² This procedure is still in an experimental stage and it will probably be reported on more fully in the near future. It would seem that this approach would go far toward tying together a classification system—that is, basing class concepts, evaluations of duties and responsibilities, and class descriptions all on the foundation furnished by responsibility distribution charts.

The increasing use of abstract symbols in place of adjectival modifiers for indicating class levels seems to be increasing. It is interesting to note that the specifications of the United States Civil Service Commission, mentioned above, do not use ranking adjectives. In the introduction to these specifications the following statement is made: "It will be observed that the service symbol and grade number are an integral part of the class title, replacing the ranking adjective. This change has been made in the interest of simplifying position titles for all purposes."

Abstract symbols used in class titles for ranking purposes are of two general kinds—those which have service-wide significance and those which have meaning only within a particular series of classes. The influence of the new policy of the United States Civil Service Commission in this regard may influence future development toward so-called "integrated" plans in which ranking symbols maintain an inter-series meaning.

²The charts and some of their uses are described by John J. Kennedy and Frank J. Waldenfels in "The Responsibility Distribution Chart: A Classification and Administrative Analysis Tool," *Public Personnel Review*, October, 1943, pp. 254-59.

A NUMBER OF SETS of class specifications have been written in the past few years without a general preliminary statement section. That is, the section variously called "General Statement of Duties," or "Kind of Work" has been eliminated. The justification for such a statement has always sounded a bit thin. One text in the field handles the question as follows:³

Such summary frequently serves a useful purpose in providing information where the inquirer's interest is casual, where he is not directly concerned with general management or personnel administration, or where succinct abstracts of class specifications are needed for budget or legislative purposes.

In more informal discussions on the subject, it seems as though the legislators ended up as almost the sole beneficiaries of this type of statement. Because it is not polite to pin down theorists on such questions, a satisfactory explanation of just how legislators use this material has not been elicited. Somewhat more seriously, it would appear that this section of preliminary statement regarding a class is not a satisfactory one for any of the purposes of classification, and the move to eliminate it in favor of a topic sentence in a more comprehensive section has much merit.

Another development which seems to have taken hold is the extended use of full sentences, narrative style, in describing the work per-

formed in a particular class. This policy contributes to ease of reading specifications and removes some of their formal aspects, which persons other than personnel technicians may have found quite discouraging.

The arguments concerning the use of stated desirable, rather than mandatory, qualifications standards have not been resolved. A number of jurisdictions have been operating for the past few years under the policy that there should be no arbitrary elimination of candidates on the basis of experience and training, and that requirements concerning these factors should therefore be expressed in terms of what is desirable. A war environment which forces standards down in any case has probably loaded recent experience in favor of this policy. Some reliable cost figures and estimates of the actual effect of this practice on testing programs may be expected in the near future from the agencies which are using it. When these returns are in, the question should be amenable to a rather definite answer—at least in terms of desirable practice.

Perhaps the most important thought which should be left concerning class specifications is that these statements *represent* the classification plan; they do not *constitute* the plan. We should, therefore, clarify our thinking concerning the legitimate functions of position classification procedures and attempt to find forms of expression for class concepts which will best contribute to the performance of these functions.

³ *Position-Classification in the Public Service*, Report of the Committee on Position-Classification and Pay Plans in the Public Service. (Chicago: Civil Service Assembly, 1941.) p. 254.

The 1943 Annual Conference on Public Personnel Administration

—A PROGRAM SUMMARY

THE THIRTY-FIFTH Annual Conference on Public Personnel Administration, sponsored by the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, together with the annual business meeting of the Assembly, took place in St. Louis, Missouri, on October 12, 13, and 14, 1943. Conference headquarters were at the Hotel Statler.

TUESDAY, OCTOBER 12

THE ANNUAL CONFERENCE was called to order at 9:00 A. M. by President Ismar Baruch, who introduced the Honorable A. P. Kaufmann, Mayor of the City of St. Louis; Daniel N. Kirby, Chairman of the St. Louis, Civil Service Commission; and Thomas F. Muldoon, St. Louis Commissioner of Police, who represented the Honorable Forrest C. Donnell, Governor of the State of Missouri. Messrs. Kaufmann, Kirby, and Muldoon extended a cordial welcome to attending delegates. President Baruch then read messages of greeting from President Roosevelt and from a number of governors and mayors throughout the country. He then announced appointments to the Auditing, Nominating, and Resolutions Committees as follows:

Auditing Committee. H. Eliot Kaplan, Executive Secretary, National Civil Service Reform League; and John Steven, Director, Personnel Commission of the Los Angeles City Schools.

Nominating Committee. Robert D. Stover, Acting Director, Minnesota Civil Service Department; Miss Frances A. Stearns, Secretary, Tampa Civil Service Board; Philip R. Berger, Secretary and Chief Examiner, Alameda County Civil Service Commission; Foster B. Roser, Director, Flint Civil Service Commission; George T. Jackson, Chief Investigator, Civil Service Commission of Canada; and Lt. (jg) Richard W. Bunch, Director of Person-

nel, Chicago District Inspector of Naval Materials.

Resolutions Committee. Henry J. McFarland, Director, Municipal Service Bureau, New York State Department of Civil Service; Thor W. Bruce, Acting Director of Personnel, St. Louis Civil Service Commission; and Earl H. DeLong, Acting Director, Smaller War Plants Corporation.

During the remainder of the morning delegates met in five concurrent round-table sessions, divided according to the size and type of their jurisdictions, and discussed the topic, "Layoff and Reinstatement Problems Resulting from Return of Personnel from Military Leave." Chairmen for the five groups were: Willard E. Parker, State Personnel Director, Louisiana Department of State Civil Service; Roy A. Dillon, Merit System Supervisor, Oklahoma System of Merit Examinations; Ray Mullins, Director of Personnel, Jefferson County Personnel Board; S. W. Graydon, Director of Personnel, Atlanta Personnel Board; and John H. Huss, Manager, Municipal Personnel Service, Michigan Municipal League.

At the Tuesday luncheon meeting, J. H. Weiss, Chief of the Office of Field Operations, United States Civil Service Commission, spoke on "The Effects of the Policies and Program of the War Manpower Commission on Government Agencies." Mr. Weiss reported that, according to a recent survey, the majority of state and local governments now taking part in employment stabilization plans have found that participation in the plans reduces turnover and aids recruitment.

Tuesday afternoon was devoted to two concurrent panel discussions. One, led by Robert D. Stover, Acting Director, Minnesota Civil Service Department, discussed "Wartime Pay Problems;" the second, led by Ross Pollock,

Secretary, Committee on Administrative Personnel, United States Civil Service Commission, discussed "Developing Effective Certification Policies and Procedures."

WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 13

MORNING SESSIONS on the second day of the Conference were taken up with two concurrent panel discussions. One panel under the chairmanship of I. J. Browder, Director, Alabama State Personnel Department, discussed "Personnel Agency Fiscal Management;" the second panel, under the leadership of Henry F. Hubbard, Assistant to the Chairman, Federal Council of Personnel Administration, discussed "Building Employee Morale."

At the luncheon meeting on Wednesday, the guest speaker was Floyd W. Reeves, Professor of Public Administration, University of Chicago, and Chairman, Conference on Postwar Readjustment of Civilian and Military Personnel, National Resources Planning Board. In his speech, "Postwar Demobilization and Readjustment," Professor Reeves stressed the problems to be faced during the transition period and suggested means to meet these problems.

The remainder of the Wednesday program included two concurrent discussion sessions, each of which was opened by the presentation of a paper. At one session, presided over by H. Eliot Kaplan, Executive Secretary of the National Civil Service Reform League, Henry J. McFarland, Director, Municipal Service Bureau, New York State Department of Civil Service, presented a paper on the subject: "Using Community Resources to Facilitate the Work of the Personnel Agency." The second paper, "Developing Adequate Class Specifications," was given by Robert I. Biren, Staff Member, Public Administration Service, at a session presided over by John Steven, Director, Personnel Commission of the Los Angeles City Schools.

On Wednesday evening, delegates attended an informal dinner and dance at the Hotel Statler.

THURSDAY, OCTOBER 14

TWO CONCURRENT panel discussions opened the program on Thursday morning. One, under the chairmanship of William K. Smith,

Acting Executive Officer, California State Personnel Board, discussed "Promotion and Transfer Policies." A second panel, under the leadership of George F. Gant, Director of Personnel, Tennessee Valley Authority, discussed "Grievance and Appeal Procedure."

THE ANNUAL BUSINESS MEETING of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada convened at 11:00 A. M. After opening the meeting, President Baruch called attention to the fact that a number of committees appointed over the last several years were still technically in existence, although they had not functioned for some time. These committees were as follows: Committee on Legislation; National Preparedness Committee; Planning Committee; Committee on Professional, Trade, and Technical Employment Standards; Public Information Committee; Test Service Committee; and Committee on Training of Personnel Workers. Mr. Baruch referred to the fact that, at its 1942 annual business meeting, the Assembly membership had authorized the President to abolish or reorganize any committee appointed by action of the Assembly. A similar power had previously been granted to the President by the Executive Council with regard to any committee appointed by action of the Executive Council. In order that the incoming President might have a free hand in designating such committees as he felt were needed to meet the current and future needs of the Assembly's program, Mr. Baruch announced that he was formally dissolving the committees previously enumerated. He indicated, however, that his action did not apply to the committees that had been appointed to prepare reports for publication in the Assembly's series, "Policies and Practices in Public Personnel Administration."

The chair then called for the report of the Nominating Committee. Mr. Robert D. Stover, Chairman of the Committee, reported its recommendations as follows:

For President: Mr. Henry F. Hubbard, Assistant to the Chairman, Federal Council of Personnel Administration.

For members of the Executive Council (regular three-year term): Willard E. Parker, State Personnel Director, Louisiana Depart-

ment of State Civil Service; and Blaine Hoover, Superintendent of Employment, Chicago Park District.

For member of the Executive Council (one year term): I. J. Browder, Personnel Director, Alabama State Personnel Department, to complete the term of Captain Kenneth C. Pennebaker, Director, Minnesota State Civil Service Department (on leave), who resigned from the Executive Council upon his entry into military service.

The President called for any further nominations. There being none, a motion was duly made, seconded, and carried, accepting the report of the Nominating Committee. Since no other nominations were made, the President instructed the Secretary to cast a unanimous ballot electing Mr. Hubbard President of the Assembly for one year, electing Messrs. Parker and Hoover members of the Executive Council for regular three-year terms, and electing Mr. Browder a member of the Executive Council for one year to complete the unexpired term of Captain Pennebaker.

The President then called for a report of the Auditing Committee, which was presented by the chairman, Mr. Kaplan. Mr. Kaplan reported that the committee had reviewed the report of Arthur Young & Company of Chicago, a firm of certified public accountants, covering the Assembly's fund transactions for the year ending December 31, 1942, and had found the report to be in order and satisfactory.

Upon motion duly made and seconded, the report of the Auditing Committee was accepted and adopted.

The President then called for the report of the Resolutions Committee. The Chairman of the Committee, Mr. Henry J. McFarland, then presented two resolutions individually. The action taken on each was as indicated.

Upon motion duly made and seconded, the following resolution was adopted:

BE IT RESOLVED, That the members of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada convening in St. Louis, Missouri, October 12-14, 1943, express our cordial and sincere appreciation to our official hosts, the St. Louis Civil Service Commission and staff of the St. Louis Department of Personnel, to the St. Louis Convention Bureau of the Chamber of Commerce, to the Citizens' Committee for Civil Service of St. Louis, and to the management of the Hotel Statler, for the careful and considerate arrangements which have contributed materially to the success of the 35th

Annual Conference on Public Personnel Administration.

Upon motion duly made and seconded, the following resolution was adopted:

BE IT RESOLVED, That the members of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada convening in St. Louis, Missouri, October 12-14, 1943, express their especial appreciation to the St. Louis League of Women voters for their hospitality shown to the wives and women delegates during the convention and at the tea held in their honor, October 12.

The chair then presented for a vote by the membership the proposed amendment to the Assembly's bylaws which would establish a uniform dues rate of \$5 annually for all active individual members. Mr. Baruch informed the members that the resolution was proposed by the Executive Council as a means of establishing what was felt to be a more equitable basis for active individual membership. He indicated that the text of the proposed amendment had been sent to all active members of the Assembly thirty days in advance of the annual business meeting.

It was then moved that the recommended resolution be adopted. The motion was seconded, and the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

RESOLVED, That the sixth paragraph of Article 3 of the By-laws of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, prescribing the eligibility qualifications and annual fee for active individual membership, be amended to read as follows:

"Any officer or staff member of any agency eligible for active agency membership shall be eligible for active individual membership upon the payment of \$5 annually, and election by a majority vote of the Assembly in session or of the Executive Council."

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED, That the foregoing amendment to Article 3 of the Bylaws of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada shall become effective on January 1, 1944, and that its provisions shall apply to all new memberships and to renewals of membership beginning on or after that date.

Mr. Baruch then stated that a brief summary of the report of the Secretary and Treasurer, usually given at this time, would be omitted inasmuch as a full report would be given the membership in the next issue of *Public Personnel Review*. (See Appendix A, following, for text of the Secretary's report.)

Reports of activities of the three regional conferences of the Assembly were then called for by the President. They were given by the chairmen of the conferences: Henry F. Hub-

bard, Eastern Regional Conference; Willard E. Parker, Central Regional Conference; and Philip R. Berger, Western Regional Conference.

In reporting on the activities of the Eastern Regional Conference, Mr. Hubbard announced that, in view of his election to the Presidency of the Assembly, he was resigning as Chairman of the Conference for the current year, and that the duties of the office would be discharged by the Vice-Chairman, Mr. George T. Jackson, Chief Investigator, Civil Service Commission of Canada.

Harry W. Marsh, President of the New York Municipal Civil Service Commission, then introduced the following resolution from the floor:

WHEREAS Mr. Ismar Baruch has given wholeheartedly and unstintingly of his time, energies, and leadership to the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada as a member of the Executive Council and later as twice-elected President of the Assembly, and

WHEREAS this leadership has extended over a period of great national emergency, during which the public

personnel field has been called upon to assume unprecedented responsibilities in meeting the wartime needs of government,

BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED, That the members of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada do hereby express their sincere appreciation for the faithful and earnest service which Ismar Baruch has given them during the years in which he has held office in this organization.

The motion was seconded by Herbert W. Cornell, Secretary, Milwaukee City Service Commission, and by a rising vote of appreciation unanimously adopted by the members of the Assembly.

There being no further business to come before the meeting, on motion duly made and seconded, the annual business meeting was adjourned.

The closing general session of the conference on Thursday afternoon, was devoted to a panel discussion, "Appraising Wartime Practices in Terms of the Future," under the chairmanship of G. Lyle Belsley, Executive Secretary, War Production Board.

APPENDIX A

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY—THIRTY-FIFTH ANNUAL BUSINESS MEETING OF THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI, OCTOBER 14, 1943

AS THE Civil Service Assembly convenes today in annual business session, the occasion is particularly opportune for casting a backward look at the twelve months that have elapsed since last we met. Viewed in retrospect, they have been months in which the mettle of our governments and citizens has been repeatedly tested in bitter, uphill warfare. As integral parts of those governmental jurisdictions, we who are concerned with the administration of their personnel programs have shared fully in the stresses and strains which these months of war have brought. They have been months of hard work and difficult problems—months that have heavily burdened the skill and resourcefulness of everyone in the public personnel field.

They have also been months of progress. The extent of this progress has been measured by the degree to which personnel agencies have readjusted their methods and procedures to cope successfully with wartime conditions. The fighting has been uphill here, too, and the success that has been achieved is the more notable for it.

The Civil Service Assembly, through its Executive Council and its Headquarters Office, has sought constantly to serve the membership through these strenuous months to the full extent of its facilities and resources. During the difficult period of transition to a wartime footing, Assembly members have turned to their organization as never before in search of information and counsel. Not always has it been possible, of course, to satisfy their needs in full, but more often than not the assistance that the membership has received has been tangible and substantial.

TWO IMPORTANT CHANNELS through which the Assembly membership has received current information on wartime personnel methods have been the Assembly's monthly *News Letter* and its quarterly journal, *Public Personnel Review*. Despite rising costs of publication and mounting difficulties in production, twelve issues of the *News Letter* and four issues of the *Review* have been forwarded to the membership. Needless to say, every effort will be made to continue this important

phase of the Assembly's activities at the same level during the coming year.

In addition to these regular publications, another volume was added to the series, "Policies and Practices in Public Personnel Administration," during the past year. This committee report, *Oral Tests in Public Personnel Selection*, is the sixth volume in the series to be published since the survey was launched. Work on additional reports is continuing, and they will be published as rapidly as facilities will permit.

Two special studies were conducted by the Headquarters Office during the year. The first of these was directed at determining the extent to which public personnel agencies have suffered losses in their key staff members through various causes. Results of this survey, which appeared in the March, 1943, issue of the *News Letter*, indicated a turnover of nearly 50 per cent. The second study, results of which appeared in the September *News Letter*, represents an effort to determine the extent to which changes in personnel policies and practices attributable to wartime conditions can be expected to remain as permanent fixtures when conditions return to peacetime levels. This latter study has considerable potential significance to personnel agencies everywhere as a basis for auditing their own programs against the consensus of the field.

AN ACTIVITY that has received particular attention during the last year has been the up-building of the Assembly's test exchange service. This service, operated by the Headquarters Office for the use of active agency members, has been utilized by a steadily mounting number of agencies as wartime conditions have become more acute. In order to render prompt, effective service to these agencies, material in the files has been organized and classified, and the mechanics for handling requests for the loan of test material has been speeded up. In most cases, now, it is possible for the Headquarters Office to assemble appropriate test material and forward it to the agency the same day that the request is received. In this connection, it should be mentioned that many member agencies of the Assembly have been highly cooperative in supplying keyed copies of their tests for the use of their fellow members. Their generosity has made it possible for the test exchange service to operate on a much broader scale than would otherwise be possible.

All three regional conferences of the Assembly held highly successful meetings during 1943. Despite the handicaps of wartime travel, attendance at each of these meetings was excellent, and it was heartening to note the degree to which attending

delegates participated actively in these conference programs. In every sense they were "working conferences."

That these varied activities are fulfilling the wants of agencies and individuals in the public personnel field is clearly demonstrated by the growth that the Assembly has enjoyed within the last year. Just before the close of 1942, the membership of the organization reached 1,000. Now, as of the first of October, 1943, the Assembly has 1,108 members. These figures are significant in themselves, but they assume greater significance when contrasted with the fact that the Assembly's membership ten years ago, in 1934, totalled only 24. The comparison between these figures speaks most eloquently for the effectiveness with which the Assembly program, as determined by its Executive Council, supplies public personnel agencies with needed assistance.

THUS FAR, this report has been concerned principally with the activities of the Assembly within the last year. To round out the picture it is also appropriate to mention a few of the notable highlights of the year in the public personnel field as a whole. For example, there has been a healthy growth in the number of governmental jurisdictions that have adopted and installed merit systems. On a relative basis, the greatest amount of activity in this respect has been at the county level; civil service systems have been adopted in nine counties in widely scattered parts of the United States during the last twelve months. Related to the growth in the number of public personnel agencies has been a perceptible trend toward consolidation of departmental merit system agencies in states where two or more such agencies have been established to service the needs of the various departments participating in the federal security program. In Georgia, legislation was enacted during 1943 consolidating three separate agencies into a single joint program. Similar consolidation has already taken place prior to 1943 in two additional states, South Dakota and Utah.

At the federal governmental level, a development worthy of particular mention has been the establishment of regional personnel councils in more than a dozen metropolitan centers throughout the United States. Membership of these regional councils, consisting of federal personnel officials who are located in those centers, make them virtual adjuncts to the parent body in Washington. The development of these regional councils is generally looked upon as having great potential value in achieving maximum integration of the over-all federal personnel program.

The year that has just passed has witnessed a

growing acuteness in the problem of manpower shortages, and the end is not yet in sight. This critical situation has given rise to manpower policies on the part of the national government that have influenced the operation of personnel agencies everywhere. Employment stabilization and pay stabilization programs, the use of manning tables and replacement schedules, the setting up of machinery by governmental jurisdictions for handling requests for deferring the military induction of their essential personnel—these are a few of the developments that the last twelve months have brought. Considered collectively as indications of the pattern for the coming year, they point to the continued need for aggressive action on the part of each personnel agency in finding local remedies for the problems with which it is locally faced. Some agencies have already made substantial progress in this direction; their success is reflected in their ability to function relatively effectively despite prevailing handicaps.

ALTHOUGH OUR day-to-day tasks have been difficult this past year, and although the immediate future holds forth no promise of easier days to come, the fact that progress has been made in the face of towering odds should give Assembly members renewed courage and energy to overcome the problems that yet confront them. As an organization, the Civil Service Assembly has been a medium through which each member has contributed to the welfare of his fellow members, and through which he has received similar benefits in return. Today, then, and throughout the coming year, there is all the more reason why this co-operative approach to our common problems and pooling of efforts toward our common goals should receive the same wholehearted support that has characterized the Assembly's steady growth in the past.

Respectfully submitted,

JAMES M. MITCHELL, *Secretary*

APPENDIX B

LIST OF REGISTRANTS—1943 ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

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| Anschutz, Everett, Personnel Director, Texas Unemployment Compensation Commission, Austin. | Berger, Philip R., Secretary and Chief Examiner, Alameda County Civil Service Commission, California. |
| Arnall, Honorable Ellis, Governor of Georgia, Atlanta, Georgia. | Bigelow, C. Ray, Secretary, City and County of Denver Civil Service Commission, Colorado. |
| Bakker, Neil, Personnel Technician, Chicago Park District, Chicago. | Biren, Robert I., Staff Member, Public Administration Service, Chicago, Illinois. |
| Bankston, J. H., Louisiana Dept. of State Civil Service, Baton Rouge. | Blix, Ovid B., Associate Chief Examiner, Milwaukee City Service Commission, Wisconsin. |
| Bartley, William H., Chairman, Missouri Merit System Council, St. Louis. | Bowers, Charles W., Commissioner, Des Moines Civil Service Commission, Iowa. |
| Baruch, Ismar, Chief, Personnel Classification Division, United States Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C. | Bowers, George H., Administrative Personnel Technician, Chicago Park District Civil Service Board, Illinois. |
| Bauer, Roberta, Administrative Assistant, St. Louis Medical Depot, St. Louis, Missouri. | Boyer, Edith, Administrative Officer, Bureau of Placement, War Manpower Commission, Washington, D. C. |
| Begert, R. W., Personnel Assistant, Farm Credit Administration, St. Louis, Missouri. | Brattin, Barbara Lu, Senior Staff Assistant, Civil Service Assembly, Chicago, Illinois. |
| Beggs, Lt. Kenneth G., USNR. | Brenneman, Leroy J., Secretary and Chief Examiner, Phoenix Civil Service Board, Arizona. |
| Belsley, G. Lyle, Executive Secretary, War Production Board, Washington, D. C. | Briggs, Audrey L., Chief, Examining Division, Minnesota State Civil Service Department, St. Paul. |
| Belt, Leonard E., Chief Classification Officer, Position Classification Service, Illinois State Department of Finance, Springfield. | Browder, I. J., Director, Alabama State Personnel Department, Montgomery. |
| Bentley, Charles H., Regional Personnel Officer, Federal Public Housing Authority, Chicago, Illinois. | Brown, Corinne H., Personnel Director, Illinois Public Aid Commission, Springfield. |

- Bruce, Thor W., Acting Director of Personnel, Department of Personnel, City of St. Louis, Missouri.
- Bunch, Lt., (j. g.) R. W., USNR, Director of Personnel, Chicago District Inspector of Naval Materials, Chicago, Illinois.
- Bunje, Bernard D., Chairman, Torrance Civil Service Board, California.
- Burke, Professor William W., Department of Social Work, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri.
- Carty, Joseph G., Personnel Director, Port of New York Authority, New York, N. Y.
- Chester, H. M., Personnel Administrator, Georgia Department of Public Health, Atlanta.
- Clarke, Betty Jean, Publicity Office, Public Administration Clearing House, Chicago, Illinois.
- Cleary, Emma G., Senior Administrative Assistant, St. Louis Medical Depot, St. Louis, Missouri.
- Collier, Shirley, Secretary to the Director, Indiana State Personnel Division, Indianapolis.
- Connor, Joseph A., Regional Director, Seventh United States Civil Service Region, Chicago, Illinois.
- Cooper, Richard W., Assistant Director of Personnel, War Manpower Commission, Washington, D. C.
- Cornell, Herbert W., Secretary, Milwaukee City Service Commission, Wisconsin.
- Cozad, Lyman H., Personnel Officer, National Housing Agency, Washington, D. C.
- Crais, Henry, Office Manager, New Orleans Department of City Civil Service, Louisiana.
- Crosser, C. A., Secretary, Bureau of Municipal Research, Des Moines, Ia.
- Crouch, Arthur W., Secretary, The Electric Employees' Civil Service and Pension Board, Nashville, Tennessee.
- Crowley, John C., Field Staff, Public Administration Service, Chicago, Illinois.
- Cushman, Charles H., Director, Rhode Island Department of Civil Service, Providence.
- Dahl, Gene, Labor Liaison Officer, Minnesota Civil Service Department, St. Paul.
- DeLong, Earl H., Acting Director, Smaller War Plants Corporation, Washington, D. C.
- DeVore, June, Department of Personnel, City of St. Louis, Missouri.
- Dientsfrei, Marjorie, Personnel Aide, Position Classification Service, Illinois Department of Finance, Springfield.
- Dillon, Roy, A., Merit System Supervisor, Oklahoma System of Merit Examinations, Oklahoma City.
- Dolen, Mrs. Kathleen, Personnel Director and Secretary, San Francisco City and County Civil Service Commission, California.
- Donovan, J. J., Acting Director, Headquarters Office, Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, Chicago, Illinois.
- Doria, Herson de Faria, Technical Administrator, Department of Administration of the Public Service, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.
- Dougherty, P. F., Special Auditor, Board of Education, St. Louis, Missouri.
- Dowdall, Ray L., Commissioner, Evanston Civil Service Commission, Illinois.
- Dunlap, E. J., Personnel Officer, Alabama Unemployment Compensation Agency, Montgomery.
- Ecklund, Norman C., Personnel Technician, Louisiana Department of State Civil Service, Baton Rouge.
- Emerson, Lawrence W., Principal Administrative Officer, Training Within Industry, War Manpower Commission, Washington, D. C.
- Englehorn, W. T., Deputy Regional Director, War Manpower Commission, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- Errant, James W., Manager, Municipal Employees Society, Chicago, Illinois.
- Fahey, Marie E., Department of Personnel, City of St. Louis, Missouri.
- Fahlen, Mildred I., Personnel Technician, Portland Civil Service Board, Oregon.
- Fay, Dr. Paul, Technical Consultant, Indiana State Personnel Division, Indianapolis.
- Ferderer, Robert C., Personnel Officer, Minnesota Division of Social Welfare, St. Paul.
- Fisher, John F., General Manager, Los Angeles City Civil Service Commission, California.
- Fitzgerald, Kent, Chief, Employee Relations and Classification Section, Indian Office, Interior Department, Chicago, Illinois.
- Foster, Jack H., Chief, Recruitment Division, New Orleans Department of City Civil Service, Louisiana.
- Fraley, H. L., Personnel Manager, American Manganeese Steel Company, St. Louis, Missouri.
- Frasher, Charles B., Merit System Supervisor, Pennsylvania Merit System Council, Harrisburg.
- Frenkel, John E., Secretary, Pensacola Civil Service Board, Florida.
- Friedman, Morton, Chief, Classification Division, War Manpower Commission, Washington, D. C.
- Gaffney, Edmond F., Technician, St. Louis Department of Civil Service, Missouri.
- Gant, George F., Director of Personnel, Tennessee Valley Authority, Knoxville, Tennessee.
- Gardiner, Charles S., Merit System Supervisor, Merit System Council, Texas Unemployment Compensation Commission, Austin.
- Garey, A. E., Civil Service Counsel, American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees, Madison, Wisconsin.
- Gentile, S. G., Personnel Officer, Detroit Department of Public Works, Michigan.
- Gilbert, Francis, Civil Service Secretary, Houston Civil Service Commission, Texas.
- Graham, Rebecca, Merit System Supervisor, New Mexico Merit System Council, Santa Fe.

- Graydon, S. W., Director of Personnel, Atlanta Personnel Board, Georgia.
- Greider, Janice, Illinois Merit System Council, Springfield.
- Gross, Mary Louise, St. Louis Department of Personnel, Missouri.
- Grove, Ben H., Personnel Assistant, Illinois Public Aid Commission, Springfield.
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COURT DECISIONS

EDITED BY H. ELIOT KAPLAN

Municipal Civil Service Legislation—Conflict with State Law—Effect of Home Rule Provision.

There is no categorical answer to the troublesome question whether a city operating under a state constitutional home rule amendment may enact civil service provisions for its employees which are contrary to state civil service law. The issue was recently raised in *State ex rel Daly v. City of Toledo*, 50 N. E. (2d) 338 (Ohio), which involved the validity of a city ordinance compelling the retirement of members of the police or fire departments at the age of 65 years. It is settled, of course, that home rule amendments give complete control to municipalities only in questions of purely local concern. Where the question is one of general, or state-wide concern, any city legislation which conflicts with state law must yield to the state statute. Although the question of what matters are of local rather than general interest is not subject to precise definition, the court found it clear that in Ohio, at least, fire protection "is a matter of concern to the people of the state generally." Two decisions of the Ohio Supreme Court are cited for that proposition. Consequently, if the city legislation governing fire employees conflicted with the state civil service law, the city enactment would be invalid. The court found that the local law was in direct conflict with the state law.

The state law provides that "The tenure of every officer . . . in the classified service of the . . . cities . . . shall be during good behavior and efficient service . . ." The court indicated that "tenure is the right to hold office for an indefinite time." Furthermore, the statute specifically set forth grounds for removal of civil service employees. Compulsory retirement is directly contrary to the tenure provided by the statute.

The statute having granted relator a specific tenure of office, any interference therewith by any municipal authority based upon an age limit or for any reason other than those specified in the statute is invalid. By whatever name it may be called, *removal or retirement*, an ordinance interfering with such tenure is inconsistent with the provisions of the statute and cannot be sustained.

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Prevailing Wage Rates—Mandamus—Ministerial Duties—Refusal to Interfere with Exercise of Discretion.

Some municipal and county charters provide that wages of their employees shall be in accord with the general prevailing rates of wages for like service and working conditions in private employment, or in other comparable governmental organizations in similar municipalities or in the state service generally. A similar provision is often included either in the rules affecting salary classifications of positions within the jurisdiction, or is made a general policy in fixing salaries of positions.

Recently the California District Court of Appeals was called upon to construe an ordinance of the City of Sacramento, which had a similar prevailing rate of wage requirement. (*Leftridge v. City of Sacramento*, 139 Pac. [2d] 112 [Cal.].) The charter provision on this matter directed the civil service board to "familiarize itself with the scale of wages paid to all classes of employees both in and out of the city service. . . . Whenever it shall be found that the city has diverged from such scale, the Board shall transmit, in writing, to the City Council notice of such divergence and it shall be the duty of the Council to adjust the wages paid to said prevailing scale." The court held that this provision did not require that the rates of wages or salaries recommended by the civil service board, or fixed by the board of supervisors, be identical with, or not higher than, the generally prevailing rates. The court affirmed a lower court order discharging a writ of mandamus directed against the civil service board where, pursuant to the writ, the board had held appropriate hearings, had determined that there was no divergence in wage scales in the instant case, and had therefore refused to make any report to the city council. All that was required by the law was that there be a reasonable or just correspondence between the rates established and those elsewhere prevailing in the jurisdiction or in the state. The court held that it could not interfere with the city's determination of the prevailing wage rate unless such determination was found to be patently fraudulent, unreasonable, or arbitrary:

Mandamus is a proper remedy to compel . . . a city civil service board to perform its mandatory duties prescribed by the charter. In the present case the writ was properly issued to require the civil service board to ascertain the prevailing scale of wages. . . . The writ, however, may not compel an officer or a board to perform the duties in a particular way. It will issue only to require the performance of ministerial duties. The exercise of discretion on the part of such officer or board will not be interfered with in that proceeding except for arbitrary disregard of the law or for flagrant abuse of discretion.

The court held there had been no abuse of discretion. The court also upheld as reasonable the classification of petitioners as "garbage men" rather than "truckmen," since their duties primarily involved the manual art of collecting the refuse, and any truck driving was only incidental.

The decision of the California court is interesting in the light of the general practice of salary standardization in jurisdictions where the only legal requirement for "prevailing rate of wages" is applicable solely to positions of skilled and unskilled labor paid on a per diem basis, rather than on an annual salary basis. The California provision referred to above is not entirely analogous to the prevailing wage requirement in the New York State Labor Law. (See *Matter of Heaney et al. v. McGoldrick et al.*, 286 N. Y. 38.) The California rule indicates the reluctance of the court generally to interfere with the discretion of administrative agencies, except in rare cases where the law is so specific and rigid as not to permit any exercise of discretion.

Compensation—Limitations on City Legislation—Constitutionality. The civil service amendment to the St. Louis city charter has been construed as imposing a mandatory duty on the board of aldermen and the mayor to enact and approve only such classification and compensation plans for city employees as are recommended by the city civil service commission. As so construed, the charter amendment is constitutional. (*Kirby v. Nolte*, 173 S. W. [2d] 391 [Mo.]) The Charter amendment reads as follows:

The mayor and aldermen shall provide by ordinance: (a) for adoption of a comprehensive compensation plan for fixing the rates of pay of all employees in the classified service, and amendments thereto, on recommendation of the civil service commission.

The words "on recommendation of the civil service commission" were construed as mandatory in nature. The amendment does not constitute an unconstitutional delegation of legislative power, held the court, stating:

Granting that the fixing of a fundamental wage policy and rates of pay for various positions is ordinarily a legislative function, still the people of St. Louis, through an amendment to the charter, may properly impose a limitation on the legislative power to permit the fixing

of such rates only on the recommendation of the commission.

Competitive Examinations—Reasonableness of Questions—Administrative Discretion. In *Korniezy v. Streeter*, 43 N. Y. S. (2d) 820 (Sup. Ct.), the court, without reviewing in detail the questions given on a competitive examination for the position of police lieutenant, held that the test held by the municipal commission was not arbitrary or capricious. "The respondents had set up a standard in accordance with judicial authority," stated the court. "That standard very properly left nothing to the discretion or discrimination of the examiners and all contestants were treated alike. . . . Clearly the court is without power to fabricate a new standard."

Appointment—Administrative Discretion—Certification of "Draftee" Eligibles. An amendment to Section 246 of the New York State military law (Subdivision 7a), adopted in 1942, sought to give appointing officers filling police, fire, or prison guard positions the right to pass over eligibles who were classified by the federal selective service as 1-A. Because draftees classified as 3-A were about to be reclassified as 1-A, the New York City fire commissioner passed over such 3-A eligibles. The court held in *Berger v. Walsh*, 42 N. Y. S. (2d) 582 (App. Div.), that the Fire Commissioner had no such discretion; that he could at most pass over only those actually classified as 1-A.

"We realize that in passing over these eligibles who were subject to imminent reclassification and induction into the armed forces," stated the court in its opinion, "the commissioner was motivated by what he regarded as sound public interest, and that he gave careful consideration to all facts. Yet, the statute gives him no such discretionary power (to consider those in 3-A who are about to be reclassified in 1-A)."

The court directed the fire commissioner to appoint those who had been classified as 3-A at the time of their certification from the civil service eligible list, even though they had been reclassified as 1-A soon thereafter and would soon be inducted into the military service after their appointment in the fire department.

The Court of Appeals, however, in affirming the order, directed that the proceeding be referred back to Special Term so that the fire commissioner may select the eligibles for appointment rather than be required to appoint all of them indiscriminately.

Appointment—Violation of Statutory Eligibility Standards—Right to Revoke Certification. An

appointment made in violation of statutory provision is void *ab initio* and may properly be revoked. This settled rule was reaffirmed in *McInerney v. Valentine*, 43 N. Y. S. (2d) 323 (Sup. Ct.). The New York City Administrative Code forbids the appointment of patrolmen who, at the date of filing an application for civil service examination, are more than twenty-nine years of age. A patrolman who was appointed in violation of this provision, through failure of the city commission to examine his application properly, was held to have no right to complain of the revocation of his appointment. Stated the court:

When the legislature fixes and prescribes terms and conditions of eligibility, they must be complied with and unless they are complied with, one who gains the office does not hold it either *de facto* or *de jure*, but is viewed and regarded as a usurper, on the theory that he was ineligible for appointment, *ab initio*. . . . The petitioner argues that the variation in the age is so trivial as to constitute it an immaterial irregularity; that is no answer and cannot thereby render one eligible who is not

To the contention that a certification could not be revoked, the court referred to the rule of the municipal commission, which has the force and effect of law: "If a person who is not entitled to be certified is certified, such certification shall be revoked by notification to the appointing officer."

Appointment—Failure to Meet Statutory Prerequisites—Effect of Completion of Probationary Period. The Supreme Court of Minnesota has recently construed the state civil service law as conferring permanent status on employees who had satisfactorily completed their probationary period, notwithstanding that the original employment may have violated statutory prerequisites. (*State ex rel Carstater v. Civil Service Board of Minnesota*, 10 N. W. [2d] 422 [Minn.].) The state law, effective in 1939, provided for the "covering-in" of employees who held a state position "for a total of five years or more prior to the effective date of this act." The petitioner submitted required forms showing state service for a seven year period, but under a subsequent ruling of the attorney general to the effect that employment with the state university was not to be included in the five year period prescribed by the statute, petitioner's actual employment was for only three years, so that he was not entitled to be "covered-in." However, the state board had permitted his probationary period to run, thus treating him as a "permanent" civil service employee. After the expiration of the six month probationary period, the petitioner's appointing officer notified the State Civil Service Board that the petitioner had satisfactorily completed his probationary period. The statute provides that "Upon such notice the

employee . . . shall be deemed to have a permanent classified civil service status."

Pointing out that "there must come a time when a state employee is entitled to know that his classification and status have been finally determined," the court construed the statute as holding that "in the absence of fraud, upon the successful termination of the probationary period, if no appeal [by the employee from his classification] be taken, the employee is entitled to, and gains, as of such date, the status of a permanent employee in the classification then designated, and is thereafter fully protected by the terms of the act." Consequently, the summary dismissal of the petitioner was set aside.

(*Editor's Note.* The decision should be construed only as an interpretation of the specific Minnesota statutory provisions. That is, permanent status is secured only because the statute so declares, and not for any reasons of "estoppel" whereby the state would be precluded from contending the original validity of the appointment. It seems settled that an appointment in violation of statutory provisions is void *ab initio* and the mere fact that the commission permits the appointment cannot nullify the statute. [See *McInerney v. Valentine*, 43 N. Y. S. (2d) 327, noted in this issue.] The effect of this decision involves a ruling that the statute itself legalizes all improper appointments, not involving fraud, where the probationary period is served and notice of satisfactory completion thereof is properly served. To this extent, the court is interpreting the statute rather liberally.)

Appointment—Nullification—Statute of Limitations. In a mandamus proceeding to annul the appointment of a chief of project planning of the New York City Housing Authority, the defendant pleaded the statute of limitations. The statute requires such proceedings to be instituted within four months after the proceeding to be reviewed becomes final and binding upon the petitioner. In *Battista v. Vladeck*, 43 N. Y. S. (2d) 291 (Sup. Ct.), the court ruled that the determination of the civil service commission became final and binding when the defendant was actually appointed, and not when the eligible list was promulgated. The motion to dismiss the proceeding was denied, with the following comment:

As I interpret *Matter of Wolff v. Hodson*, 285 N. Y. 197, 202, 203, 33 N. E. (2d) 90, the commission may not, after certification, change or recall its action in placing one upon an eligible list, but that such power resides in the commission and is retained by it prior to and up to the time of such certification. Here the defendant, Vladeck, was appointed to his present position on March 4, 1943, and thereupon the determination of the commission became final and binding, for it was then divested of any further

authority or power to move or recall the defendant, Vladeck's name from the eligible list.

A similar issue arose in *Gorgenstein v. Arnstein*, 43 N. Y. S. (2d) 243 (Sup. Ct.), which involved suspension of the petitioner from his civil service position for a one-month period, and a deduction of one quarter of a point from his civil service rating. In holding that the limitation period had run, the court disposed of the petitioner's contention as follows:

The position of the petition is that the tolling of the statute began from the time of the refusal of the civil service commission on May 1, 1943, to revise and correct the petitioner's rating. This is an erroneous view. . . . The statute must be deemed to run from the date when the first decisive ruling is made. . . . The petitioner cannot, by reviewing the application or procuring its disapproval, extend the limitation imposed by the statute. If that were permissible, the statute could be extended indefinitely, by repeated applications for reconsideration and there would never be a "final" and "binding" determination.

"Covering-in" Employees—Constitutionality—Rights of Regular Civil Service Employees. A "covering-in" amendment to a city charter was subjected to constitutional attack in *Risley v. Board of Civil Service Commissioners of Los Angeles*, 120 (2d) 165 (Cal., July 28, 1943). City civil service employees objected to a charter provision granting similar rights to private utility employees retained by the city after acquisition of the utility. The regular employees, who, of course, had taken appropriate examinations, complained that since the effect of the charter provision was to grant equal seniority rights to many of the new employees, the effect is to deprive regular employees of their property without due process of law, and to impair the obligations of their contracts with the city. The attack was unsuccessful, for fundamental reasons, as pointed out by the court:

The rights to which plaintiffs would cling are created by or under the provisions of the charter and are dependent upon those provisions. They may all be lost by the repeal of the provisions or modified by an amendment to the provisions, at the will of those who determine what the charter's terms shall be. . . . None of the cases relied upon by the plaintiffs, and, we add, none of which we are aware, holds that rights such as plaintiffs have are "vested" in the sense that they are constitutionally immune from modification or destruction.

Promotion—Provisions of Ohio Statute—Attempted Transfer from Abolished Position. The Ohio civil service law provides that when a police department position above the rank of patrolman is abolished the incumbent shall be demoted "to the next lower rank." The statute further provides that vacancies above the rank of patrolman "shall be filled by promotion from among persons holding positions in grade or rank lower than the position to be filled."

In *State ex rel Wolcott v. Celebreeze*, 49 N. E. (2d) 945 (Ohio), the relator, who held the position of captain of police in the City of Cleveland, claimed a right to promotion to the position of deputy inspector. The relator was first on the promotion eligible list promulgated after competitive examination, as provided by law. The city director of public service defended his refusal to promote the relator by contending that the two existing vacancies had been filled by virtue of the fact that two deputy commissioners of traffic, whose positions had been abolished, were transferred to the positions of deputy inspector, so that there were no vacancies to which relator could be promoted. The court ruled that the transfer of employees violated the statutory provisions. Under the statute, the deputy commissioners of traffic were required to be demoted after the abolition of their positions. Instead, they were transferred to the positions of deputy inspector at a salary higher than they had formerly been receiving. "It would be futile to attempt to construe this action as a demotion," stated the court. The statute further requires the vacancies to be filled by promotion from the next lower rank. This provision was also disregarded. Thus, the relator was held entitled to the promotion.

Demotion—Charter Provisions—Effect of Failure to Obey. A transfer of a civil service employee from his position as housing and sanitation inspector to a dissimilar and lower type of position in the special police board constituted a "demotion," and was, therefore, beyond the authority of a city council where the charter provision detailing procedure for demotions was not obeyed. (*Reed v. City Council of Roseville*, 141 Pac. [2d] 459, [Cal.]) It was unnecessary to show that the action was taken arbitrarily or in bad faith. The demotion itself violated the charter, regardless of the motives that may have prompted it. The court in its opinion stated:

It is conceded by the parties . . . that the salaries of the two positions are the same, but demotion means something more than a reduction in salary. To demote is to reduce to a lower rank or grade, and there may be a demotion in the type of position though salary may remain the same. While it may appear that one qualified to perform the duties of housing and sanitation inspector is qualified to perform the duties of special police officer, yet if the situation be reversed, the lack of qualification of the latter to perform the duties of the former instantly appears, and compels the conclusion that the petitioner's transfer did effect a demotion.

(Editor's note. See also *Simmler v. City of Philadelphia*, 329 Pa. 197; compare *Crosby v. Board of Education*, 187 App. Div. 205; affirmed 226 N. Y. 705; and *Callaghan v. Board of Education*, 78 App. Div. [N. Y.] 504.)

Abolition of Position—Good Faith—Improper Action of Trial Court. The familiar and generally settled principle that an authorized abolition of a position, made in good faith and for reasons of economy, may not be challenged by a civil service employee who was deprived of his position as a result of its abolition, was reaffirmed in *Stockton v. Department of Employment*, 140 Pac. (2d) 147 (Cal.). The trial court had issued a writ of mandamus directing reinstatement of the petitioner to his former position as chief of the division of state employment agencies, a position which had been abolished by resolution of the California Employment Commission, pursuant to statutory authority. Since the order of the trial court would constitute an abuse of discretion if made without proof of fraud or bad faith in its abolition, the appellate court reviewed the entire record and found no indication of bad faith. The action of the trial court was thus deemed improper. The court declared:

The purpose of the civil service system is not to perpetuate offices but rather to preserve the status of state employees as a reward for faithful and efficient services and for the welfare of the government. We know of no statute which prohibits the abolishing of a division of state service, when that change is made in the interest of economy or efficiency. . . .

(Editor's Note. See also: *McIver v. Swank*, 20 So. [2d] 605 [Fla.]; *Thompson v. City Council of Augusta*, 17 S. E. [2d] 161 [Ga.]; *Ellis v. Allen*, 154 S. W. [2d] 815 [Ark.]; *Wipfler v. Kleebes*, 30 N. E. [2d] 581 [N. Y.]; *Morris v. City of Seattle*, 104 Pac. [2d] 1118; *Stine v. McCaw*, 27 N. E. [2d] 488 [Ohio]; *Forbes v. City of Woburn*, 27 N. E. [2d] 733 [Mass.].)

Removal—Criminal Conduct—Effect of Court Acquittal. Somehow, the impression has grown that a public employee indicted for a felony or charged with a misdemeanor, and subsequently acquitted, must necessarily be continued in his public position. That is not so. On the contrary, although acquitted, or the charges or indictment be quashed, the department head is not precluded from independently appraising the conduct of the employee and circumstances of his arrest and determining his fitness to continue in his public position.

This precise issue arose recently in *Sheehan v. Board of Transportation*, 43 N. Y. S. (2d) 778, (Sup. Ct.). An employee of the New York City Board of Transportation was charged by the board with insubordination and misconduct in connection with an altercation he had with one of his superiors. He was charged with assaulting his superior. The employee filed a notice of ap-

pearance by an attorney and pleaded a general denial and asked for an adjournment of his hearing until after the criminal charges arising out of the occurrence had been disposed of in the Court of Special Sessions. The Board refused to grant such an adjournment. The employee then withdrew from the hearing and it was continued in his absence, with other witnesses testifying as to the altercation. In the meantime, the employee was indicted by the Grand Jury for assault, and after trial the jury returned a verdict of "not guilty." The employee then demanded that the Board of Transportation reinstate him and pay him his back salary, claiming that the acquittal by the jury after trial was conclusive on the Board of Transportation, and that the board's prior dismissal of the employee was unlawful.

The Supreme Court refused to reinstate the employee pointing out that there is a distinction between departmental disciplinary proceedings conducted by an administrative agency and a criminal prosecution under the penal law. "The two are separate and distinct and absolutely independent of each other," stated the court.

The determination of one is not *res judicata* as to the other, and neither one must be held in abeyance for the conclusion of the other. The verdict of "not guilty" of a third degree assault charge does not prove that the petitioner was not guilty of insubordination and misconduct, and that he did not enter into an altercation with and assault his superior. The evidence required to prove insubordination and misconduct might not sustain a criminal charge of assault. In addition, however, efficient administration of government requires that departmental heads be vested with the power to enforce reasonable regulations to govern the work and conduct of employees and to impose reasonable penalties which might sometimes be severe for the violation of those regulations. . . . Our courts have consistently held that the acquittal on a criminal charge does not constitute a bar to disciplinary proceedings.

The court held that the determination of the criminal charge was in no way controlling and that the board did not exceed its authority or abuse its power when it refused to adjourn the departmental hearing until after the disposition of the criminal charge.

Removal—Judicial Review—Arbitrary Exercise of Administrative Discretion. In *Hammond v. Curry*, 14 So. (2d) 390 (Fla.), the court reviewed the evidence supporting the ouster of a civil service city police officer, and came to the conclusion that the removal was unjustified. Recognizing that administrative discretion should generally be permitted to operate freely, the court nevertheless ruled that: "We may determine whether there has been a 'legal and reasonable exercise of administrative judgment predicated upon required procedure and appropriate evidence as shown by the record as made,' or whether there

has been an 'abuse of delegated authority or arbitrary or unreasonable action.'"

LEGAL NOTES

Dismissal by City Council. Where the city council of Johnstown did not expressly delegate its power to dismiss employees to the superintendent of public safety, the council could, nevertheless, dismiss the superintendent of garbage collection over the protest of the director of public safety, although the city ordinance authorized the superintendent of public safety to hire or employ subordinates for garbage collection. (*Myers v. Hartnett*, 33 Atl. [2d] 512 [Pa.].)

Position Abolished by Merger. Where such acts are done in good faith for purposes of economy and even though their effect is to abolish plaintiffs position, the city manager has authority to merge the plaintiffs position as superintendent of nurses of the city hospital with that of assistant superintendent of the hospital. (*Glendenning v. Curry*, 14 So. [2d] 794 [Fla.].)

Provision of Space to Employee Association. The city attorney of Los Angeles in his opinion to the city comptroller on the power of the De-

partment of Water and Power to furnish clerical assistance, floor space, and other facilities to the Los Angeles Water and Power Employees Association, a private corporation, maintains that the furnishing of these services and facilities may properly be borne by the department as one of the necessary expenses of operating its public utility business. He reasons that the result in benefits to the service will be reasonably consistent with the amount expended, and justifies it on such grounds.

Salary Rate of City-Paid State Employee. A New York statute (a part of the civil service law) which provides for the classification of positions by grades and for annual increments of salary applies to all employees of the state service, whether paid directly out of the treasury of the state or out of funds of the municipality, as required by state statute; and transfer of its power of determining the budget appropriations for the state agency payable out of city funds does not vest the power of fixing salaries in the city board of estimate, where the city charter provides that the power of the city board of estimate to fix salaries shall be "subject to the provisions of the civil service law." (*Powers v. LaGuardia*, 43 N. Y. S. [2d] 341 [Supreme Court].)

BOOK REVIEWS

Demobilization and Readjustment. Report of the Conference on Postwar Readjustment of Civilian and Military Personnel of the National Resources Planning Board. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. June, 1943. 106p., \$.20.

The development of administrative machinery for the successful demobilization of the armed forces and the readjustment of civilian war workers is a challenging task to which the best techniques available must be applied. This report of the Conference on Postwar Readjustment of Civilian and Military Personnel sets forth in some ninety-odd recommendations a program for action. The Conference, which was appointed by the National Resources Planning Board in July, 1942, at the request of the President, was composed of representatives of the armed forces and such federal agencies as the War Manpower Commission and the Veterans' Administration. Chairman of the Conference was Dr. Floyd W. Reeves, of the University of Chicago.

The report is well documented with charts, tables, and estimates of employment. It is estimated, for example, that present employment is between 62 and 63 million; that the prewar employment figure was 45 million; that 6 million persons, made up mainly of youths who otherwise would have been in school or college, persons beyond normal working age, and women, will withdraw from the labor force at the end of the emergency, leaving approximately 56 million in the labor force to supply consumer demands which 45 million supplied before the war. Members of the Conference were not in agreement on the estimated number of unemployed, but all agreed "that at the close of the war many millions of persons will be forced to shift from one type of activity to another and that at that time a great danger of accumulating unemployment will exist."

The Conference recognized that "the problems of military and civilian readjustment are in fact simply different aspects of one task—namely, that of providing measures whereby returning soldiers and civilian war workers may find their places in a reconstructed civilian economy in which all

have an opportunity and an incentive for constructive work." While recognizing the need for rapid demobilization, the Conference emphasized the need for order as well: "The returning soldiers must not be put in the position of rescuing the world from the grasp of aggression only to return to a world in which they cannot find their place and their opportunity."

Demobilization and readjustment are a part of the broader problems of national planning for economic stabilization and social security. The problems considered in this report are an important part of the whole task of securing full employment, instead of the current wartime overemployment, and to prevent the recurrence of large-scale unemployment. Approximately one-half of all employed persons, or a total of 30 million, are either in the armed forces or engaged directly in war work. The changing of occupations implied in the return to a peacetime economy will have tremendous repercussions. It will be necessary to have machinery for the proper timing of industrial and military demobilization, as well as the placing of veterans and war workers, if a large volume of unemployment is to be avoided during the readjustment period.

The principles set down by the Conference as being applicable to any desirable demobilization and readjustment process are: The need for a continuing adequate armed security, a continuing industrial security, rapid and orderly military demobilization, rapid and orderly industrial conversion, full employment, and the stimulation of individual initiative and group effort. With these guiding principles the Conference makes specific recommendations for the demobilization of the armed forces and the release of workers from war occupations. Their recommendations are based on positive plans, using the four tools of social security, education, employment, and counseling and guidance.

The plans are directed to the following objectives: (1) To sustain the spending power of the individual and the general population through the transition period by such measures as separation pay for those in the armed services, a liberal and more uniform provision for unemployment

compensation for servicemen following the war, and general extension and improvement of the social security system; (2) adoption of reasonable measures to accelerate the rate of conversion of war industry, the resumption of peacetime activity and the provision of industrial employment opportunities; and (3) to provide useful interim employment or occupations for people during the transition period such as may be represented by the extension of opportunities for education or by the provision of jobs in the field of public works.

The Conference realized that the bulk of employment must be furnished by private industry and that public works should not be relied on as the primary source of jobs. The government should however prepare a reservoir of public works to be used in case of need. The normal program in this field should be stimulated in much the same fashion as private employment. It is the responsibility of the federal government, in the opinion of the Conference, to set the general policy and pattern for the readjustment period largely through its own fiscal and economic policies, to assist the states and cities in the solution of problems created by the conduct of the war, and to provide direct relief to distressed areas where the war-created problems greatly exceed the local capacities to deal with them.

It is obvious, the Conference report states, that further studies are needed of postwar industries and their capacities for employment. The Conference recognizes that while some existing agencies may handle the demobilization job, a strong central directing agency should be established to plan for postwar readjustment and to integrate the federal agencies engaged in postwar planning: this is the crux of the problem and it should be faced without delay.

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Supervision of Governmental Employees. Alfred M. Cooper. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. New York. 1943. 202p. \$1.75.

There is cause for rejoicing, perhaps, that someone has at last written a book devoted to the supervision of government employees, as distinguished from industrial employees. Supervisors in the public service for some time have been exposed to the missionaries of that religious dogma known as "Job Instructor Training." Mr. Cooper, certainly no stranger in the field of training, now offers the new supervisor a down-to-earth discussion of the problems attendant upon dealing with

subordinate employees. His message may be read in the quiet of one's study; if the reader does not consider that important, then the reader has never learned how to become a supervisor in five easy lessons of two hours each, complete with abracadabra and pledges of undying faith.

Mr. Cooper's book is valuable for the governmental employee who finds himself in a supervisory position. Personnel people who are planning supervisory training programs may find it useful in obtaining a picture of the beginning supervisor as someone else sees him and in obtaining ideas for inclusion in a training program. Essentially, however, the book is not written for the personnel practitioner but rather as an aid, on a fairly elementary level, to the first-line supervisor in a government office.

Immediately after the governmental employee receives notice that he has been placed in charge of a group of subordinates, his troubles appear to multiply at an alarming rate. Until he has received this promotion, the new supervisor has been responsible only for his own output, and he could control this production by the efforts of his own hands. Now, however, he finds himself held responsible for the output of a number of other employees, and only rarely can he take physical action to add to that output. Instead he must devise ways and means of encouraging and motivating these subordinates to do a good day's work, thus using his brain rather than his hands to increase production in his department. Mr. Cooper proceeds to analyze the job of the supervisor in these terms, and approaches his subject of supervision from that analysis. Problems of health and safety, the development of group morale, and the qualities of personal leadership necessary are discussed fully. The author makes much of the supervisor's responsibility for public relations, particularly insofar as his subordinates' contacts with the public are concerned. Every public service supervisor would do well to consider Mr. Cooper's suggestions on this subject.

The problem of delegating authority is approached rather tentatively by the author, and in this respect the book loses some of its force. There is, as stated in the book, a wide difference of opinion among experienced supervisors regarding the amount of authority that a supervisor can safely delegate to subordinates. In this reviewer's opinion, however, there are some fairly fundamental principles that can be stated on the subject of delegating authority, which can be illustrated by specific examples. Mr. Cooper fails to take advantage of the opportunity to state and illustrate these principles and herein lies a weak-

ness of his book: it is primarily arm-chair philosophy, and although it reveals an extensive amount of experience in industrial personnel administration, it leaves the reader wondering just how intimate is the author's familiarity with problems of the public service.

In this connection, consider, for example, the statement:

For many years civil service commissions have had the final say in all matters pertaining to wages and working conditions of governmental employees. . . . They have set rates of pay for all civil service jobs, regulated the length of the working day, determined when overtime should be paid, and had much to say about employee promotions.

Consider also the unique feature of supervision of governmental employees:

. . . when someone in authority forgets the true function of civil service employment and attempts to set up personnel policies that are revolutionary and communistic in principle. This usually happens when some young executive who has received an overdose of Marxian internationalism in college finds himself in a position to put into practice certain radical theories with which he has become indoctrinated. . . . It would be unnecessary to devote space in these pages to a discussion of supervisory problems created by communistic practices were it not for the fact that ultraliberals appear to gravitate into governmental employment in times of social unrest.

Perhaps Mr. Cooper has had some unfortunate experience. Perhaps, on the other hand, Mr. Cooper's arm-chair is not the best vantage point.

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Essentials of Industrial Health. C. O. Sappington, M.D. J. B. Lippincott Company. Philadelphia, 1943. 626p. \$6.50.

Dr. Sappington's book must be regarded as an outstanding contribution to the literature on industrial health. He effectively stresses the close inter-relationship between industrial and public health, discussing all phases of prophylactic and curative measures which bring about a balanced relationship between these two important programs. The volume is divided into three main divisions: industrial health administration, industrial hygiene and toxicology, and industrial medicine and traumatic surgery. Each division is accurately and comprehensively subdivided so as to provide a complete and dependable coverage of the whole subject.

The opening chapter of Part I presents a historical review of the relation of occupation to health. This survey is not only interesting, but is also very pertinent at the present time when attention is being focused on industrial productivity as influenced by public health, and, conversely, the individual and community health as

affected by the occupational factor. The legislative background of occupational health problems is also critically reviewed.

The second major division, devoted to industrial hygiene and toxicology, implements the thesis that the prevention of disability from any occupational cause is the industrial physician's real contribution to the welfare of the whole population and to industrial productivity. Descriptions of special technics and equipment necessary for accurate estimation of toxic exposures and the correlation of medical and engineering methods of control are among the salient features. Maintenance of control over toxic exposure is rightly considered a direct responsibility of the industrial physician.

The final division discusses the principles of industrial medicine and traumatic surgery. Major emphasis is placed on morbidity records, on the importance of a real knowledge of etiology, on early recognition and treatment, and reliance, when necessary, on expert clinical and technical facilities. The author discusses the administrative practices of workmen's compensation and insurance agencies, with which physicians in industry so commonly deal. In a chapter called "The Worker and the Job," the author discusses the importance of "close cooperation between the personnel and medical departments," in order that "the worker be properly adapted to the job." The production problems brought on by the present war have added a new responsibility—the additional safeguards necessary for the care of a vast army of women workers. This important phase of industrial medicine is adequately discussed in "Women in Industry" (pages 388-96).

In the section on toxicology, the author lists in one chapter all the industrial poisons and the occupations in which exposure occurs, in addition to a brief outline of the toxic symptoms. The subject is much too large to condense into one volume, much less one chapter, and for this reason, the toxic symptoms of each of the many toxic agents are listed only very briefly. It might be suggested that throwing the common etiological factors of industrial poisons into groups, and discussing the symptoms of intoxication of each group in greater detail, would have been more effective.

Certain chapters are of particular interest to managerial personnel. In chapters 2 and 3 Dr. Sappington shows by means of graphs and statistics why it is worth-while to keep the man on the job by depicting the cost of injury and illness to the employer, employee, and the community. These chapters should be read by top manage-

ment and all personnel men. Chapters 7, 8, and 9 deal with the plant survey, plant sanitation, and personal hygiene for workers. These chapters are important for management in order that it may derive the most benefits from the medical organization. The book includes a section of appendices, references, and alphabetical indices of proper names and subject matter.

Modern industrial methods of work are making new and greatly increased demands on the worker. Industrial health—today more important than ever before—is increasingly difficult to achieve. Its achievement is a challenge to Dr. Sappington, and this book is his answer to many of the present day problems of the industrial practitioner. Of the soundness and timeliness of his answers there can be no doubt.

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BOOK NOTES

A Study in Public Relations. Harold P. Levy. Russell Sage Foundation. New York, New York. 1943. 165p. \$1.00.

This self-styled "case history of the relations maintained between a department of public assistance and the people of a state" describes in considerable detail the organization and the methods used in the public relations program of the Department of Public Assistance in Pennsylvania. The public relations activity was explained in connection with the many special groups toward which it was directed, including the legislature, pressure groups, citizen organizations, the client public, and intra-departmental groups. While not intended as a "model" plan, it does have usefulness not only for those engaged in public assistance work, but also those concerned with other functional aspects of public administration, because of its objective delineation of all the various aspects of one comprehensive and successfully administered public relations program.

Workers and Bosses Are Human. Thomas R. Carskadon. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 76. Public Affairs Committee. 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York. 1943. 32p. \$.10.

As a brief factual introduction to the human side of collective bargaining, this little pamphlet has an appeal to any individual who either works for or employs other individuals. Beginning with an examination of the background of union-management relations, as expressed in *The*

Dynamics of Industrial Democracy by Clinton F. Golden and Harold J. Ruttenberg, the discussion turns to examine the probable future developments in collective bargaining. Employees of government at all levels, being members of a field of work which is in general notably missing from those active in the trade-union and collective-agreement movement, may be interested in some of the predictions for the future. Of particular interest in the general discussion is the emphasis placed upon the principles of human nature and human behavior that must be taken into account in any dealings between an employer and his employees.

The Use of Part-Time Workers in the War Effort. Helen Baker and Rita B. Friedman. Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey. 1943. 48p. \$1.00.

The present use of part-time workers in industry to supplement the inadequate labor supply of full-time employees is summarized in this pamphlet, which also presents suggestions for the possible extension of present part-time worker programs to ease difficult manpower situations. Although directed primarily toward problems of industry, many of the suggested policies will be adaptable to public personnel agencies which are finding it increasingly difficult to fill departmental requisitions for employees. Sections on the recruitment and selection of part-time workers, their induction and training, and on arranging hours of work and wage rates may be found particularly applicable to the public service.

Wage Rates and Living Costs in a War Economy. Maurice S. Brody. Studies in Business Administration, Vol. XIII, No. 3. University of Chicago Press. Chicago, Illinois. June, 1943. 38 pp. \$1.00.

In the light of the current controversy over the question as to whether wage rates should be allowed to increase to keep pace with rising costs of living, this discussion is a most timely one. A knowledge of the problems involved in a war economy is fundamental to an intelligent appraisal of this question, according to the author, and his expressed purpose is to furnish an interpretation of the factual information necessary for such understanding. He takes the stand in favor of a stabilization of the cost of living through stability of wages and prices. Because of their part in establishing and administering pay scales in the public service, public personnel administrators and technicians will be interested in this author's views on the most satisfactory method

for helping the government maintain its policy of stabilized wage rates.

Women at Work in Wartime. Katherine Glover. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 77. Public Affairs Committee, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, New York. 1943. 31p. \$.10.

Another publication to be added to the volume of literature on the subject of women workers in wartime is this Public Affairs pamphlet which dis-

cusses such problems as the sources of supply of women workers, helping women find satisfactory jobs, fitting jobs to women, equal pay for equal work, and day care of children of working mothers. A section entitled, "Working for Uncle Sam," describes opportunities available to women in government positions. The gains which are listed as resulting from the increased use of women workers in war industry will doubtless be sought by public personnel administration in the future.

ARTICLE ABSTRACTS

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— WARTIME ASPECTS

1. Graves, W. Brooke. State government reporting in wartime. *State Government* xvi (7) July, 1943: 156-9, 166-7.—The steady increase in the number and scope of governmental services has brought about a need for a positive public reporting program. However, such a program has not yet attained that degree of acceptance which is essential to its continuous and uninterrupted public support. Hence, appropriations for such work have been among the first to feel the effects of economy drives. It is particularly imperative during war time that the channels of communication between the government and the people be kept open and, possibly, even expanded. To prepare effectively the right publications for the right persons at the right time, state governments must establish reporting principles. A recent study made by the Minnesota Division of Administrative Management and Research stated that the essentials of good reporting were: an attractive format, brevity, graphic presentation, adequate statistical and financial information presented in an understandable manner, an approach geared to the public mind, logical organization, careful editing, timeliness, official anonymity, uniformity, completeness, regular standards of content, promulgation from official sources, the obtaining of official approval, an economical printing process, and the careful ascertainment of distribution needs prior to publishing. The responsibility of a government in the publishing field falls in the categories of legislative and judicial reporting, administrative reporting, the reporting of administrative rules and regulations, and general fields of information, education and research. The wisdom of suspending any of these reporting media for the duration is doubted. It is recommended that each state establish a division of publications to be organized along the lines of editorial work, distribution, and mechanical processes. Other suggestions touch on the need for maintaining current mailing lists and a permanent report file, on taking advantage of the technological advances in printing, and on the value of some centralized control over printing within each state, including the possibility of a state-operated printing plant.—*Rita Davidson.*

2. Gray, Carl. The Gray plan for post-war reemployment. *Occupations* 22 (1) October, 1943: 3-9.—When peace comes, the United States will be faced with returning to peaceful productive employment the ten to

eleven million men now in the armed services, and with the conversion to civilian production of war manufacturing industry now employing ten-and-one-half million men. To accomplish this, the Gray plan suggests using insofar as possible existing agencies and levels of government, with a single, over-all coordinating agency at each level. The national agency would be responsible for coordinating the activities of all others concerned with various aspects of the program. For example, vocational training would be the responsibility of the U. S. Office of Education; apprentice training of the Apprenticeship Training Service; the discharge of workers from the armed forces, the Army and Navy; and vocational guidance, agencies offering vocational counseling. At the state and community level, the organizational structure would be similar to that at the national level, with responsibilities delegated to cooperating agencies by the coordinating agency. The plan envisions a research, reports, and planning department as an integral part of the agency at each governmental level. At the local and state levels, besides a research, reports and planning unit, the agency would operate one or more of the following units: (1) occupational adjustment division, (2) veteran placement service, and (3) a related service section to coordinate activities with social agencies and private institutions. The local office of the agency would handle two classes of applicants: (1) returning service men and women, (2) all other unemployed. The local office would receive, review, and evaluate each person's case history or service record to decide: (1) whether or not the individual can be placed in employment, (2) what training is available to bring a person up to placement standard, and (3) the necessary recommendations to the training authority. The plan also provides for occupational counseling and training to occupationally maladjusted individuals.—*Paul T. Anderson.*

3. Jamieson, H. W. Canada plans for veterans' training. *Occupations* 22 (1) October, 1943: 17-19.—Proceeding on the assumption that the only guarantee of ultimate preference in employment is a permanent skill, Canada has begun the educational rehabilitation of returned veterans. If the veteran is satisfactorily pursuing vocational, technical or other educational training which will better fit him for employment, he receives a training grant of \$10.20 per week if single, or \$14.40 per week if married, for a maximum period of twelve months. In many instances a brief training period enables veterans to adapt to civilian practices techniques learned in the mechanized forces. Univer-

sity training is designed particularly for those whose educational program was interrupted by enlistment. This training, too, is governed by the length of the individual's service in the forces, but not with a twelve-month maximum. One who has served at least two years and who has completed university undergraduate entrance requirements or who can obtain such admission within twelve months after his discharge may receive assistance for three academic years; if his career shows great promise, this assistance may be carried through to graduation or even to a postgraduate degree. In addition to the maintenance grant of \$10.20 or \$14.40 a week, the university student's tuition, student and athletic fees may also be paid. Grants may be made to postgraduate as well as to undergraduate students. Since this program does not provide for repetition of university work, careful guidance and selection are essential. Twenty-five ex-service men attended a Canadian university last year and it was expected that that number would be doubled by the beginning of this autumn term. The government, the school, and the community are cooperating to minimize the veterans' handicap in their readjustment to civilian life. —*Alice E. Kennedy.*

4. Jamison, Charles L. **Re-employment of ex-service men in public positions.** *Annals* 227 May, 1943: 104-10. —The public employee, particularly one who has gained status through civil service, has a right when he enters the armed services to expect that when he is dismissed from the service he can start again where he left off. The Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 imposes on all departments of the United States government the requirement that every ex-serviceman who has satisfactorily completed his period of training and service must be restored to his position provided he "is still qualified to perform such position." The Act recommends this procedure for the states and their political subdivisions. The federal law was enacted while the nation still was at peace. The point of view then taken was that the trainees would be returned within a year. In this short period they would have lost little of their skill and their jobs would have changed but little. Now that the nation is engaged in a war that may extend over a period of years, the wisdom of guaranteeing to returning veterans the same positions or positions of like seniority, status, and pay may be doubted. One reason is that the organization of many departments in the public service is being materially altered with changing conditions. What those changes eventually will be cannot now even remotely be forecast. Many departments created for the emergency will be discontinued when the war is ended and of course cannot take back any of their employees who have entered the service. How the provisions of the law can be reconciled with this situation is at best very vague. Another reason is the probable change in the veteran's capacity to do even what he was required to do before he entered the armed services. Veterans will have been trained in many skills vastly different from those required of them in civil life. They may not be content to settle down to the

monotony of the average civil occupation. But once having been reinstated to the civil service, veterans may not be discharged "without cause within one year after such restoration." Proof of cause is not always easy. War service appointments result in adverse selection of employees for public positions. Better qualified employees are not attracted to the temporary places. The resultant indifference of some of the employees cannot be but demoralizing. The elements of the cost of the policy will consist of (1) locating, selecting, hiring and training substitute employees; (2) retraining former employees when they return; (3) the probable cost of taking some of them on the payroll when there is no position available in which their services can be profitably used. At least fourteen states have enacted laws patterned after the provisions of the federal act. Personnel officers in states where such laws have not yet been enacted should carefully consider the preferability of veteran preference legislation. Present veteran preference laws give marked preference to any veteran regardless of whether he had previously been in public employment or not. The problem under discussion might be solved by giving former public employees preference over all other veterans in civil service eligibility. Viewed strictly from the veterans' personal interest it would be preferable to have positions secured for them through reinstatement protection rather than through veteran preference on civil service eligibility lists. From the point of view of employers, however, the latter plan has many advantages.—*Ray Mullins.*

5. Unsigned. **The personnel situation in public welfare agencies; report of personnel committee of the American Public Welfare Association.** *Public Welfare* 1 (7) July, 1943: 211-17.—The ability of public welfare agencies to solve basic administrative problems in the recruiting, retention, training and effective utilization of personnel is revealed in the degree to which they are able to meet the demands made upon them for regular civilian and wartime services. At the present time there are actual shortages of experienced personnel for the health and welfare services of the country, both in the clerical and executive branches. This shortage has resulted from the draining off of trained experienced personnel and potential personnel into the armed forces, auxiliary forces, and industry. The growing discrepancy between the relatively low salaries in the welfare field and standards of remuneration elsewhere has contributed to the loss of personnel. Welfare administrators can meet the problem of personnel shortages only by enlightened recruitment methods, programs for staff development including practical inservice training, and reclassification of personnel to allow the maximum utilization of the material available. Recruitment publicity must be positive, informative, and directed toward the known available resources of personnel material. The streamlining of the entire examination and certification processes, including open-filing for certain critical positions, has been found to work successfully in many jurisdictions. A necessary part of a successful recruiting effort is the proper in-

terpretation of civilian welfare services as part of the total war effort. When concessions must be made in the entrance qualifications for new personnel, they can be partially offset by a complete staff development and training program. Some additional approaches to be explored in the effective use of existing personnel are: the extension of the hours of work, freeing skilled case workers for those functions which require a high degree of professional competence by creating sub-professional grades to perform less highly skilled functions, and streamlining operations such as statistical reporting, accounting and dispersing practices, case reporting, home visiting, family budgeting, correspondence, office procedure, filing, and travel practices. Also, the controls established by the War Manpower Commission over the nation's civilian labor pool can be applied generally to the personnel of public welfare agencies, providing that the agencies elect to be included in the employment stabilization program. However, the assertion that welfare services are essential to the war effort brings also the responsibility of making maximum utilization of present limited facilities and resources.—*Barbara L. Brattin.*

6. Unsigned. **Priming for post war tasks.** *Manpower Review* 10 (7) July, 1943: 3-7.—The machinery for placing former servicemen in jobs is of vital public importance and provides both for the utilization of soldiers who are discharged during the war and for those who are released at the time of general demobilization. In order to make the best use of the men who are being returned to civilian life at present, the established services are being extended and new ones are being developed. Plans for such a program were made earlier in this war and the need for adequate rehabilitation facilities received primary emphasis. Legislation is pending which would assure a rehabilitation plan scaled to the huge requirements arising out of the present war, in which there is a much higher recovery rate among the injured. In addition, existing facilities are more widely known and so it is expected that more persons will make use of these services. Experience has indicated that returning soldiers tend to fall into one of four categories: those who want their old jobs back, those who seek new jobs, those who want training for better opportunities or require physical rehabilitation and training, and those who are incapable of work and need hospitalization or institutional care. Numerous agencies exist to apprise the discharges of employment and training possibilities and of their rights in respect to their former positions. However, if the soldier does not want his old job back, he will be directed to an appropriate training course, to rehabilitation centers, or will be given the proper hospitalization, depending on his wishes and needs. It must be remembered that the men returning now are a valuable reservoir of manpower, and that it is important to employ them as soon as possible. Such action will increase their morale, as well as that of the other workers, and will close some of the gaps in the war labor force. So far, the program for discharges has functioned satisfactorily, and preliminary reports from half the states indicate that

USES facilities have been availed of, and that as high as 75 percent of those registering have been placed.—*Rita Davidson.*

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— GENERAL ASPECTS

7. Moffett, Guy. **The relation of personnel management to an evolving society.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (10) August, 1943: 2-6.—From the long-range viewpoint, we can trace the march of humanity toward greater tolerance for differences between individuals, races, and nationalities, and toward an enriched life for the individual and kindlier relations among men and nations. Society is the sum of all individuals and not a separate unity. In the long run, what is best for the individual is best for society as a whole. What then are the goals toward which the human family strives. They are: to produce and share the things and services to satisfy their needs; to develop and apply their capacities; to prepare their offspring for adult life in a productive, peaceful world; to feel that they are participating in worth while work of the world; to merit and gain the respect of their fellows; and to be free to speak, think, and act within limits that they set. The industrialization and division of labor into small units in the past has resulted in management's overlooking the importance of the individual. The responsibility of the personnel man in our evolving society is as a part of top management to make the rest of management aware of the necessity for providing an opportunity on the job for man's attainment of his basic human aims. The personnel man of today is confronted with many present and future problems: recruitment, training, manpower utilization, demobilization, and problems of post-war adjustments. With all of these changes and problems, however, the fundamental goals for which men strive will not change. It is the personnel man who deals with individuals in relation to their work who has the opportunity to make possible the achievement of these personal goals and it is the sum of the individuals' achievements that make up the progress of mankind.—*R. Permin Everett.*

8. Unsigned. **Organization and responsibility for personnel administration.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (9) May, 1943: 3-5.—To assist agencies with management problems arising out of ill-defined and tangled personnel responsibilities, the staff of the United States Bureau of the Budget, in consultation with the United States Civil Service Commission and the Council of Personnel Administration, has drafted a specimen departmental order pertaining to organization and responsibility for personnel management. In a memorandum accompanying the specimen order, the staff reports its experience as the basis for the principles followed: A successful personnel program must be an integral part of operations of departments and agencies. The head of that department or agency needs a small personnel staff, closely integrated with budgeting and administrative planning, to assist him in carrying out his responsibilities for the personnel aspects of management. It is the duty of the personnel staff to

formulate and gain acceptance of personnel policies and procedures, to review standards of operation and suggest corrective action, and to assist but not release the supervisor from discharging his responsibility for operation. Personnel management is a device used in administration to realize policy aims; therefore its specialized techniques must be guarded against becoming ends in themselves. The director of personnel must act only as a staff officer who assists, consults with, and services line operators on personnel aspects so that they can fulfill their responsibilities for over-all management more effectively. To realize this objective, personnel work should be organized under the leadership of a director and a small but carefully selected staff, whose responsibilities are several: to the department head for effective leadership, sound judgment, and technical skill; to the staff officers for assistance in solving management problems; and to operating supervisors for help in developing sound personnel management at the point where the work is actually performed. (A specimen order is appended. It visualizes a large federal department containing a number of sub-divisions. With modifications, it is considered applicable to all departments and agencies. It defines the responsibilities of the director of personnel and his staff with regard to carrying out the total personnel program, maintaining required personnel records, and handling personnel transactions between the department and the Civil Service Commission.)—Margaret Bernauer.

CLASSIFICATION; PAY

9. Zerga, Joseph E. Job analysis: a resume and bibliography. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 27 (3) June, 1943: 249-267.—Job analysis is especially important now in helping to meet current manpower shortages through obtaining factual data concerning the worker and his job so necessary to the planning of such activities as training, safety programs, and wage revisions. The three basic methods of job evaluation are the "ranking," "classification," and "point" systems. The ranking method consists of grading each job objectively in terms of other jobs according to the value of the work. The classification method is one in which jobs are assigned to a pre-established series of categories. The point system involves the preparation of a list of factors generally common to all jobs, the breakdown of each job into those factors, and the assignment of a value, on a point scale, to each factor found in the job. Two recent developments are the "factor comparison" and the "functional pattern" techniques. The former calls upon the synthesis of a number of techniques including job descriptions, job-to-job comparisons of relative difficulty, comparison of common factors, use of "key jobs" to relate wages to job difficulty, assignment of point values to factors, and a breakdown of "key job" wages into quantitative monetary values of the factors involved. The "functional pattern" technique is used after job evaluation in grouping jobs according to similarities of background, training, skill, and experience necessary for their performance. Another development in job analy-

sis is the "job family" of the United States Employment Service, using a modification of the "Viteles psychographic method" of analysis of occupational requirements. (Appended is a bibliography of 401 items.)—Kenneth E. Dougan.

RECRUITMENT; SELECTION; INDUCTION

10. Gottsdanker, Robert M. Measures of potentiality for machine calculating. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 27 (3) June, 1943: 233-48.—By using the Wherry-Doolittle test selection method, a battery of three tests, Number Dot Location, Arithmetic Computation, and Tapping, was found to be the best measure of the abilities required for proficiency in the operation of a crank-driven calculator. These were selected out of a total of nine paper and pencil tests studied. Preliminary selection of the tests was based upon job analysis, desirable worker characteristics, and reference to similar tests used in other investigations. Data were obtained by administering the nine tests to a group of 44 women before they started a course in calculating machine operation, and from the results of work demonstration tests taken at intervals throughout the course. After being combined and adjusted to account for machine differences, the results of the work demonstration tests were used as the criterion measure. A corrected multiple correlation coefficient of .57 between the selected battery and the criterion was obtained. Test-retest reliability of the individual tests, based on data obtained from administration to a university tests and measurements class, resulted in coefficients ranging from .67 to .90.

While admitting that the resulting multiple correlation coefficient is too low to establish this battery as a complete and final selection device, the author feels that certain errors of measurement characterize the method used in obtaining the criterion measures which may have had some influence in lowering the multiple correlation coefficient obtained.—Ralph Mueller.

11. Hay, Edward N., and Blakemore, Arline M. The relationship between clerical experience and scores on the Minnesota vocational test for clerical workers. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 27 (4) August, 1943: 311-15. Is there a significant difference in performance on the Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers between experienced and inexperienced clerks? The subjects were women applicants for clerical work. Experienced subjects had at least one year of clerical experience ending within 6 months prior to taking the test. Their experience ranged from 1 to 20 years, averaging 5 years, in such work as secretary, bookkeeper, typist, clerk, multigraph operator. Inexperienced subjects had no clerical experience, (selling and soda-dispensing not being classified as clerical); a large majority had no work experience whatsoever. All subjects took the Minnesota test and the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability (Higher Examination, Form B, 20-minute time limit). Some of the frequency distributions resulting from the experiment

are as follows: experienced group on Minnesota Numbers—N of 241, M of 126.5, standard deviation 24.2; inexperienced group on Minnesota Numbers—N of 229, M of 119.0, standard deviation 23.0; experienced group on Minnesota Names—N of 241, M of 132.1, standard deviation 25.5; inexperienced group on Minnesota Names—N of 229, M of 124.1, standard deviation 26.1. The difference between the mean Minnesota Numbers score for the experienced and inexperienced groups is 7.5 in favor of the experienced group. The critical ratio based on the standard error of the difference is 3.4. This indicates virtual certainty that the difference between the two groups is a true difference and not due to chance variation of the mean. The same is true regarding Minnesota Names, the difference between the means being 8.0 and the critical ratio 3.4. Findings indicate that Minnesota clerical scores of completely inexperienced applicants should not be compared directly with those who have had a year or more of clerical experience. The effect of experience seems to stop there. There is practically no correlation ($-.06 \pm .04$) between length of experience and Minnesota Numbers score for the experienced group. Comparison of the experienced and inexperienced groups on the Otis test shows that the superiority of the experienced group on the Minnesota test cannot be linked to a superiority in intelligence. Nor does the factor of age seem responsible for the difference. Commercial training does not affect the Minnesota clerical test scores. Is the difference due to learning habits on the job or is a selective process at work which screens out over the course of a year's experience those of lesser clerical ability? Further study will be made. At present, with insufficient cases to constitute conclusive evidence, indications point toward a learning process as the cause of the difference.—*Michael Levine.*

12. Lavos, George. **Unfounded objections to hiring the handicapped.** *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 7 (4) July-August 1943: 191-97.—Society once disposed of its rejects by killing them. Gradually it came to tolerate them as necessary by-products of civilization but they have never been given full opportunity to assume their place in the manpower picture. Because of the present shortage of workers, the problem assumes momentous proportions. Objections to the hiring of the disabled ranges from a protest against their assumed inefficiency to an unconscious fear that the disabled are possessed of evil spirits. Specifically, employers maintain that they are a higher accident risk; they can't stand the pace because of poor health; they are absent a great deal from work; and they can't be shifted about to meet the demands of production. Categorically, employers deny the validity of hiring them by generalizing upon specific failures: one crippled worker failed on the job; therefore all will fail, etc. There is no statistical evidence to support the objections of employers; indeed, all the reports tend to indicate the opposite—the handicapped worker is more conscientious and more careful than his fellow workers. This is not an attempt to refute the objections of employers

but to present the problem and let the final solution be dependent upon the results of open and frank discussion regarding the issues involved in hiring the physically handicapped.—*R. L. Randall.*

13. Traxler, Arthur E. **Correlations between "mechanical aptitude" scores and "mechanical comprehension" scores.** *Occupations* 22 (1) October, 1943: 43-43.—The increased use of "mechanical" tests resulting from the war prompts some investigation as to the correlation between some of the better-known tests of this sort. In order to obtain some evidence concerning the relationship between the Minnesota Paper Form Board Test and the Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Test, a correlation was computed between scores made on the two tests by 230 cadets of the Merchant Marine. The correlation, $r = 0.393 \pm 0.38$, though low, is obviously significant. Further correlation of each test with one of accepted academic aptitude reveals a correlation of both tests comparable to that shown between the two "mechanical" tests. Assuming that the "academic" test provides valid measurement of general intelligence of the abstract sort, one may say that there is a low, positive correlation between general intelligence and mechanical aptitude as measured by the Minnesota and Bennett tests. The inadvisability of selecting tests at random from within a given field is evident. For all such tests we need more information concerning validity as indicated by correlations between the test scores and criteria of success on the job. (Article contains a table showing the correlations of scores on the Minnesota and Bennett tests with scores on the American Council Psychological Examinations.)—*Charles B. Briley.*

14. Wells, Frederic L., and Savage, Beatrice M. **Normative data for consultative use of a modified alpha procedure.** *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 7 (4) July-August, 1943: 171-78.—Preliminary consideration is given to certain intellectual functions, reflected as speed, range, and altitude, and of types of tests generally characteristic of each. A lack of balance between the verbal and number components of the original Army Alpha test is pointed out and a form of a revised alpha in which the balance between these components has been adjusted is described. Methods are presented for converting verbal and number raw score totals into scores comparable to the original Army Alpha scores, for converting subtest raw scores to standard scores and for recognizing further differentiation of test performance based upon speed in reading test directions and for completing test sections in less than the time allowed. Emphasis is placed upon the necessity for closer consideration of subtest scores and score patterns in place of sole reliance upon total scores. Tables of means and standard deviations of subtest scores of selected populations tend to reflect characteristic differences in training and selection. Differences between performance on subtests are indicated. A method of expressing the relation between the number and the verbal score as a percentage of the total score is described.—*Ralph Mueller.*

15. Wright, James H., and Laing, Donald M. The time factor in the administration of the Wonderlic personnel test. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 27 (4) August, 1943, 316-19.—The Wonderlic Personnel Test, by measuring the mental alertness of prospective employees, is designed to aid in good placement. In order to determine whether variations in time limits influenced the test results, 189 applicants for employment in a typical industrial plant were tested on a two-time interval. At the end of 12 minutes note was made of the questions answered and the applicant was then given 12 additional minutes in which to complete as much of the remainder of the test as possible. The correlation between the 12 and 24 minute test score results, computed by various methods, ranged from .94 to .98. The authors state that "the conclusion appears evident that within the known reliabilities of the test itself, a time limit of 12 minutes is sufficient to determine with a fair degree of reliability the mental alertness of the applicant."—Norman J. Powell.

WORK TERMS; CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

16. Francis, Kent W. Accident prevention for municipal employees. *Public Management* 25 (8) August, 1943: 228-32.—If the item "accident prevention for city employees" is not listed in the budget of a municipality in those terms, it appears, among other things, as increased cost of insurance, as damaged or idle equipment, as welfare and medical expenses, and as wages for labor needed to do the work left undone by injured employees. Studies in industry within the last three decades have shown accidents to be preventable. Despite the complexity of modern machinery and the accelerated pace of production, some five thousand industrial units reporting to the National Safety Council reduced their accident frequency rates an average of 67 per cent from 1926 to 1940. Accident prevention is the inescapable obligation of the efficient city administration. The essentials of such a program, regardless of the size of the organization involved, are: a responsible, interested executive in charge; a system of records which reveals what the problem is and how well it is met; and the persistent application of accident prevention principles to all the work done by city employees. Accident prevention in municipalities is likened to that in private industry in that it requires the same thorough planning, the same care in selection of personnel, the same kind of delegation of authority, the same necessary expenditure of funds for equipment and time for training. As in industry, the success of the accident prevention program rests heavily on the interest and cooperation of the immediate supervisors of the employees. If they display mental reservations about the practices they are asked to follow, much of the effort spent on the safety program up to that point will have been wasted. Therefore, though the planning of the program must come from the top, the development and operation must be built on a solid foundation of employee and supervisor acceptance. Also indispensable to any safety program are the inspection committees, which serve to reveal the need for new

equipment, the use and misuse of equipment, and many of the unsafe practices which can become habitual with employees whose training has not heretofore included accident prevention. In short, the inspection committee is the device by which a safety program is kept at a high level of performance. Another important element in accident prevention work is suiting the employee to the job. Industrial employers have found that careful selection and placement of employees has greatly reduced the cost of accidents, absenteeism, and occupational disease. Of particular importance is job training instruction which includes accident prevention. Finally, since a successful safety program is possible only with the interest and cooperation of employees, supplementary training and education for their benefit is indispensable. Instruction booklets, payroll inserts, safety instruction cards, and rule books designed by the employees themselves serve to keep them aware of accident problems and stimulated to deal with them. Administrative officers of the safety program, too, must continue their training and education and avoid falling into the belief that a period of favorable experience means that the accident problem has been "solved." (Article includes a list of common problems encountered in the operation of city departments, and their solutions as factors in an adequate accident prevention program.)—Barbara L. Brattin.

17. Unsigned. Employment of youth abroad. *Manpower Review* 10 (7) July, 1943: 12-13.—The employment of persons under 18 in three belligerent nations—Great Britain, Russia and Germany—was restricted before war programs began. All prohibited overtime and night work and limited hours to 8 a day, 48 a week; in Russia, to 6 a day, 30 a week. British restrictions on youth employment in hazardous occupations have been retained, but maximum hours were raised. After Dunkirk, restrictions were ignored, until fatigue and absenteeism required limiting the work week to 48 hours for youths aged 14 to 16, and 60 hours for youths 16 to 18. These orders and the ban on job-shifting are not always rigidly applied, nor are youths normally subjected to compulsory transfer from home. In Russia, the once-strict limitations were lifted to 8 hours a day for 12 to 14-year olds; night work still prohibited. Children as young as 12 must work on farms; all over 14 are now considered adults, but any conscripted for industry remain at their homes. In 1935, Germany's codes governing youth employment were relaxed with regard to working hours and hazardous occupations; now 16-year olds may work 9 hours a day, or in emergencies, 60 a week. Children 10 to 14 are employed in agriculture. Though war conditions have been quite different in America, foreign policies may serve as guideposts and warnings.—John Ohlson.

18. Unsigned. Conditions of work of hospital employees in the United States. *International Labour Review* 48 (1) July, 1943: 56-63.—The International Labour Office recently surveyed the conditions of

hospital employees in various countries and here reports the information relating to conditions in the United States. The positions surveyed were not only those of doctors and nurses but also those of persons employed in the dietary, housekeeping, power plant, laundry, maintenance, laboratory, pharmacy, radiology, occupational therapy, physical therapy, dentistry, and all administrative and clerical work. The conditions of work are regulated in some cases by collective agreements, in others by the standards prescribed by professional associations, but more often by private agreement concluded within the legal limits imposed by national or state laws. The personnel principles outlined by the American Hospital Association, while imposing no legal obligation, have had a salutary effect generally speaking. As a condition precedent to full employment, the A. H. A. recommends that new employees should be American citizens over 18 years of age and that there should be no discrimination based on race or religion; that applicants must pass a physical examination and be on probation for at least three months; that termination of employment by either the employer or the employee should be subject to reasonable notice. General principles are also laid down by the A. H. A. with regard to special aspects of contractual relations, such as hours of work, salary, holidays, and various forms of protection of the employee. While it is recommended that the maximum working hours should not normally exceed 52 hours in any one week or 9 in any day, 10 and 12-hour duty still exists in small hospitals; and even in large centers where the 8-hour day is in operation, the working week may vary from 48 to 56 hours according to the number of work days in the week. Some progress has been made toward arranging unbroken hours and making a permanent schedule for at least all but a skeleton group. With regard to salaries the general principle of the A. H. A. is that hospitals should endeavor to pay salaries commensurate with those paid in the area for similar work with comparable working hours and requiring comparable responsibility, experience, and skill. The A. H. A. standards call for annual paid vacations, varying in length with the classification of positions, and for 14 days of sick leave with full pay, or a number of days equal to the employee's annual vacation. The average vacation of general staff nurses, who generally get the fewest days if any distinction is made, is two weeks with pay per year. Since the beginning of the war, vacations have been shortened and some hospitals are granting no vacations at all but give vacation allowances instead. Health services at reduced cost have been established for employees in a few hospitals; the A. H. A. recommends that such services be provided generally and that they include outpatient, hospital, and infirmary care, inclusive of professional service. The A. H. A. is also in favor of a group hospitalization program for employees, or of an individual hospital insurance plan provided by the hospital. The Association has not endorsed the extension to hospital employees of unemployment insurance under the Social Security Board, perhaps because of a belief that this protection is not now needed in view

of the general shortage of hospital employees.—William T. McDonald.

19. Unsigned **How to cut absenteeism.** *Personnel Journal* 22 (3) September, 1943: 74-79.—Absenteeism is a symptom of difficult working or living conditions or of individual maladjustment. It can be controlled by eliminating or mitigating as many of its causes as possible and by increasing job satisfaction. Absence data are necessary for knowing the extent of the problem and may be used to secure the interest of top management. Causes may be discovered through spot surveys or by interviews with returning absentees. Many causes are widely known, including personal illness and transportation difficulties. Remedies have also been suggested, but they are not always applicable. Changing conditions and labor turnover demand constant effort and ingenuity to find workable solutions. However, there are basic attacks on absenteeism causes. Medical examinations have been used to combat personal illness and aid has been given in the solution of transportation difficulties. Increasing job satisfaction is an even more difficult problem. Efforts in this direction include properly orienting the new employee to his job, providing careful job training and safety training, improving the quality of foremanship, and making it possible for the worker to express his ideas. Bad plant conditions and the idleness and waste resulting from poor production planning also contribute to employee dissatisfaction. Management should be induced to improve these conditions.—Charles W. Fredriksen.

20. Wilson, Elmo C., and Katz, Daniel. **Absenteeism in war industry.** *Survey Graphic* 32 (9) September, 1943: 345-47, 362-63.—The Office of War Information, at the request of a number of war agencies, made a study of the incidence and causes of absences in a survey of eighteen war plants. From each plant a representative sample of one hundred workers were interviewed by the indirect question technique. To round out the survey, information was gathered concerning the history of the plant, its treatment of absenteeism, its personnel policies, its size, and the pace and extension of its conversion to war production, as well as data about the local community resources with respect to housing, recreation, and transportation. As a supplement to the main study, interviews of the last eighty absentees were made in two plants. The findings of the study amply demonstrate that absenteeism is affected by home living conditions, plant working conditions, plant efficiency and organization, personnel practices and labor-management relations. When these are good and above average, morale and production are high, and absenteeism low. "Once it is recognized that absenteeism is not usually capricious wilfulness, its treatment obviously consists of getting at the causes and curing them." Remedial programs growing out of worker-management cooperation and encompassing special provisions for working wives, extension of community services to employees after working hours, improvement of in-plant conditions and living conditions

outside the plant, point the way to the solution of the problem. (Article contains statistics showing per cent of absences among dissatisfied and satisfied employees.)—*Adrian E. Gory.*

EMPLOYEE RELATIONS

21. Bentley, Garth. The employee publication as a morale builder. *Advanced Management* 8 (3) July-September, 1943: 79-85, 96.—Employee papers cannot offset unsatisfactory surroundings, poor working conditions, or ill-advised supervisory policies. However, the properly run employee paper, can help immensely to create that favorable state of mind among employees which is necessary to the success of any employee relations program. No other means of reaching the employee has equal effectiveness. Supervisors cannot mold employee opinion and be sure of the proper reaction. Unpopular supervisors may arouse antagonism to the best of ideas. Even under the most favorable circumstances, explanations will vary in effectiveness because one person does it better than another. Personal letters to employees help on special occasions; used often, they lose influence. Bulletin boards are seen by some, ignored by many. Mass meetings or personal contact by executives is often impracticable. Even the disinterested reader, however, will glance over each copy of the paper, particularly if he knows it may contain important announcements. This regular contact with the employee makes it possible continuously to emphasize ideals, practices, policies and advantages of company employment which tend to be forgotten. The publication should be planned with a fourfold purpose. It should explain company policies to create understanding and a desire to cooperate. It should build morale. It should encourage personal ambition by recognizing and publicizing promotions and good performances. And finally, since every comprehensive employee relations program has social and recreational angles, the employee paper should be their spark plug. The effectiveness of the employee publication depends on adherence to journalistic principles of attracting reader interest and on ingenuity in the selection and presentation of material. The variety of material which may be useful is unlimited, and with ingenuity even announcements of new rules can be used to increase understanding and improve morale.—*H. Richard Rice.*

22. Macleish, Archibald. Library of Congress employee relations program. *Personnel Administration* 5 (9) May, 1943: 6-7.—Library of Congress Order 1177, which governs employee relations in the library, was drafted in negotiation with two employee unions and a staff advisory committee. The general objective in drafting the report was to provide ready means of staff-supervisor communication in regard to employee welfare and to establish grievance procedures. "The Library's statement of principles as drafted is based upon the proposition that administrative and non-administrative employees in the government service meet and work out their difficulties as employees in common of the whole people with a view to the interest of the people as a whole." The drafting process took

five months and included a survey of policies and procedures in other federal agencies; conferences and meetings among employee groups; and numerous preliminary drafts, which employees reviewed and criticized, in addition to the final drafting and approval. Employee participation was widespread and was deemed beneficial to the administrators. "We in the Library of Congress believe that we have gained more from the drafting of the basic Order than the basic Order itself. We have learned that personnel and administrative practices cannot be thought through in abstract. No policy-forming official, regardless of his ingenuity and foresight, can devise a program involving human elements without knowing those human elements in human terms."—*John B. Steven.*

23. McGlothin, William J. Union-management administration of employee training. *Advanced Management* 8 (2) April-June, 1943: 38-44.—The Tennessee Valley Authority recognized bona fide employee organizations early in its history. This recognition culminated in the adoption of an Employee Relationship Policy, in August, 1935. One policy adopted looked to conferences of management and employee representatives for joint action in the solution of personnel problems. Among the problems the conferences were to discuss were education and training. In May, 1936, craft unions were the first to propose joint administration of training programs. The result was the organization of a carpenter apprentice program on July 1, 1936, with administration of the program in the hands of a joint committee. As other apprenticeship programs developed, it culminated in the Central Joint Council on Apprenticeship, established December 8, 1938, consisting of five representatives each from labor and management. Further training programs were later established for labor, white collar, and professional functions—all under joint administration. Two types of training plans have been established under joint administration. One is a qualifying training program, the other a promotional training program. Craft apprenticeship and student generating plant operating training are examples of qualifying training. This training is conducted outside the normal organization of positions and so that trainees not in the service may become eligible for a regular position. The promotional training plan covers already established positions and is designed to train employees for work of a higher grade. In both instances, the appropriate training committee accredits the persons who have satisfactorily passed the course. The personnel department accepts the training committees' accrediting as satisfactory evidence of qualification, and places the accredited employees on eligible lists. Participation in these training programs is not, of course, the only route to inclusion upon the eligible lists from which appointments are made. TVA management is willing to give employees a voice in the training programs because the employee groups have participated wholeheartedly and have contributed many valuable suggestions in the planning, administering, and appraisal of training programs.—*Irving Gold.*

24. Overholt, John A. **Grievance procedures as aids to morale.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (9) May, 1943: 8-9.—Because of the deleterious effect of grievances on employee morale and the consequent decrease in employee efficiency, procedures for the recognition and adjustment of such disturbances are essential for smooth-running and effective operation. A procedure for the settlement of grievances must be purposeful, established in a cooperative spirit, worthy of confidence of the workers, reflect the attitude of the entire organization, provide safeguards for the initiators of the method, and grounded on good principles of management and employee relations. Recognition of the need for formalized grievance procedures led to the issuance in 1938 of an Executive Order requiring personnel directors in federal agencies, subject to the approval of the agency heads and the Civil Service Commission, to establish means for hearing grievances and making recommendations for their adjustment. The Civil Service Commission, therefore, formulated a statement of its jurisdiction and of the principles to be applied in approving proposed plans. While such plans are allowed to differ in administrative details, all must incorporate certain basic provisions. They must not discriminate against employees because of membership or non-membership in an employee organization. They must make provision for presentation of grievances in writing and making replies in writing in cases that cannot be handled through regular administrative channels. In such cases, also, a committee must be provided to hear cases of employee grievances and make recommendations to the department head for his final decision. As is the situation with many remedial processes, the ready availability of the procedures is as important in its effect on employee morale as are the actual settlements made.—*Audrey L. Briggs.*

25. Tead, Ordway. **Employee counseling: a new personnel assignment.** *Advanced Management* 8 (3) July-September, 1943: 97-103.—Use of "employee counselors" has experienced a great development to meet an emergency need in government and industry. The need arises from several causes: rapid large-scale influx of new workers, principally women; the urgent importance of bringing new workers quickly into productive effectiveness and minimizing turnover; and the shortage of trained supervisory personnel, making staff aid imperative so that foremen may concentrate on getting out production. Consensus of experience is that counselors are concerned with effective job performance; satisfactory working surroundings; personal adjustments within the plant; and community and domestic difficulties affecting worker efficiency. Counselors are mostly women. Some work in the centralized setting of a personnel department; some are on roving assignment in a line department. The "roving" technique is most effective, obviating employee resistance to "coming into the front office." Prerequisite to success of roving counselor is that foremen and, in union shops, stewards understand and are shown that the counselor is there to assist and supplement management not to supplant it. Elaboration of this pro-

gram focuses attention on ethical relations, the need for standards of personnel executive conduct—a matter that will receive increasingly greater attention as the professional nature of personnel work gains acceptance. Of numerous propositions for such a code of standard practice, one of the most important is that workers' confidences reposed in the counselor must be respected. Since the foreman should be his own day-to-day personnel officer, counselors will be retained during the postwar period only if they satisfy a need which line supervisors cannot or are reluctant to supply. If criteria of ethical conduct find sanction for counselors, postwar management will have to include such a code in training of foremen. Hopefully, a by-product of this development will be a new respect for the department head's job, a toning up of foremanship quality. (The article contains excerpts from government and industrial sources listing specific duties assigned to counselors.)—*Allen Sokoloff.*

26. Unsigned. **Union agreements with municipalities.** *Monthly Labor Review* 56 (6) June, 1943: 1165-70.—In addition to a number of unilateral statements and memoranda affecting the labor relations of municipalities, and also agreements with certain other unions, there are on file with the Bureau of Labor Statistics, 32 bilateral signed agreements negotiated with municipalities by either the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees, (A. F. of L.) or the State, County and Municipal Workers of America (C. I. O.). With the exception of Philadelphia, the cities are places of 100,000 population or less and most of them are in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Pennsylvania. Generally the workers covered by these agreements are mechanics, street cleaners, janitors, laborers, truck drivers, attendants, etc., but white-collar groups and supervisors are included in some. Elective and appointive officials, police and firemen are generally regarded as ineligible for membership. Neither of these two unions imposes any restrictions on membership because of color, race, or creed. Many of the agreements specify that employees shall not be discriminated against because of union membership. Both organizations seek to improve the wages, hours, and working conditions of public employees, to promote efficiency in public service, and to extend the merit and civil service systems. Eleven of the 32 agreements provide for the union shop and a few of these specifically state that an employee is to be discharged upon failure to remain a member in good standing. Three provide a modified union shop; nine recognize the union as sole bargaining representative; the remaining agreements merely recognize the union as the agent of its members. Six agreements provide for the check-off of union dues upon individual authorization, and one makes the check-off compulsory. Nine of the agreements provide procedures for the adjustment of grievances by discussions, but without referral to arbitration; eighteen provide for the final settlement of disputes by impartial arbitration. In eight of the agreements, strikes and lock-outs are expressly forbidden, while the others make no reference to strikes and lock-outs. Wage pro-

visions vary from those providing detailed job classifications and rates to those which permit the union to make suggestions to the department head when he is preparing his budget estimate. All the agreements set forth the length of the work week and work day, and overtime rates. The principle of seniority is recognized to a varying degree in all the agreements. Twenty-six agreements grant vacations with pay; seven deal with holiday pay; and fourteen provide for paid sick leave. Among other subjects mentioned are call pay, emergency work, safety equipment, physical examinations, and the use of bulletin boards. Most of the agreements run for one year or for an indefinite period and contain the usual termination clause. Some cities have issued statements concerning labor relations in forms other than that of a standard union agreement, which indicate a degree of understanding between the municipality and a union. These statements may be in the form of a resolution, an ordinance, a mere statement of policy, or the adopted rules and regulations. They may or may not contain reference to the union. —Ray Mullins.

27. **Unsigned. Counseling in the federal service.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (10) August, 1943: 10-13. —Since employee counseling is a relatively new and developing phase of personnel administration, this statement was prepared by the Council of Personnel Administration and the Inter-departmental Conference on Employee Counseling to define counseling, indicate how it works, and what it might be expected to accomplish. Counseling is receiving considerable emphasis at the present time because of the need for maximum productivity. New workers are working in new environments and under supervisors who are often inexperienced and untrained, and they need assistance in making readjustments. Management finally has realized that personal problems detract from full attention to the job and result in decreased productivity. The counselor does not take over the responsibility from the operating officials or the personnel officers. He has the responsibility for determining the effect of policies on employees and reporting this to management. He also explains to the employees the reason for certain conditions and interprets management policies and practices to them. The "how" is by personal interviews, by developing programs of benefit to employees, by interpreting needs of employees to management and to the communities in which they live, by referring certain cases to specialists, and most important by treating as confidential, information given to them by the employees. It is very important that the counselor establish the relationship of trust between himself and the employees as definite as that between the lawyer and his client, a physician and his patient, or a minister and his parishioner. Counselors must have more to offer than merely an interest in people and ability to get along with them. Counselors must be qualified by training and experience, must be poised, emotionally mature, and well adjusted. They must have a thorough knowledge of human nature and must know what facilities of the organization and the

community are available to help the employee solve his personal problems. Counseling is an integral part of personnel administration but its exact place in the organization depends upon the size of the agency and the character of the personnel work undertaken. Counseling is effective when the findings of the counselor form a basis for sound recommendations to management. Tangible results of an effective counseling program are increases in production; improvement in working conditions; reduction in complaints, grievances, absence from work, and turnover. Counseling is therefore a tool which management may use to improve supervision and work methods and, in short, to improve administration itself. —R. Permin Everett.

28. Yavner, Louis E., and Seidman, Harold. **Credit counseling for employees.** *Personnel Journal* 22 (3) September, 1943: 91-96. —For economic as well as humanitarian reasons, the current manpower shortage underscores the necessity for dealing more constructively with the problem of the debt-ridden employee. To meet this critical problem, the New York municipal administration entered upon a program of credit counseling. Six city employees serve as part-time counselors and employees have been informed that personal credit problems can be discussed privately, confidentially, and off the record. It is made clear that the employee is expected to work out a solution himself with the aid of the counselor. The most important objective of the counselors is to stimulate sound family financial planning which may eliminate or reduce the need for credit. When borrowing is necessary, counselors advise the employee regarding credit costs, and if there are many outstanding debts they aid the employee in consolidating and refinancing these debts. The counselors also assist employees to make adjustments with creditors, where necessary, and when the employee has borrowed from a loan shark he is advised how to obtain legal relief. Credit counseling inevitably tends to improve morale and conserve manpower and thus is a valuable aid to the personnel administrator who is looking for means to attain those ends. —Charles W. Fredriksen.

SEPARATION; RETIREMENT

29. Mitchell, John W. **Personnel turnover in the federal government.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (9) May, 1943: 12-20. —Increasing concentration of attention has been leveled at the sizable turnover in personnel which has accompanied the upward trend in employment. Turnover rates in civilian employment in the federal government compare favorably with that of private industry, although both are quite high, if not excessive. The most generally accepted formula for measuring turnover is the ratio of separations during any period to average employment. In April, 1943, in order to obtain urgently needed statistical data on employee turnover, the U. S. Civil Service Commission devised a system of reporting on civilian employment and pay rolls, so as to include data on accessions and separations. At the suggestion of the Federal Council of Personnel Administration, personnel officers in

many federal agencies voluntarily inaugurated exit interview programs during the last quarter of 1942, and, at present, about fifty agencies have submitted monthly turnover reports to the Civil Service Commission. Among the ascertained reasons for turnover, military service was reported most frequently (25% of the cases). Other important factors are salary matters and chances of promotion, followed by lack of interest in work, unsuitability to type and level of job, services inadequately used in the war effort, and relative insecurity of position. The general living environment in Washington, which has received an undue share of attention and publicity, is given in only one instance

in ten as a reason for leaving employment. One of the major benefits of the exit interview has been the persuasion to stay in the service of one person in every six proposing to leave. In order to work out remedial methods, it is necessary to obtain the facts for shaping a program—such facts as (1) the magnitude and extent of the problem, (2) an indication of the causes of the problem, and (3) correct interpretation and analysis of available data. Some other means of minimizing turnover losses are salary and occupational adjustments, job training, replacement scheduling, and fuller utilization of women, physically handicapped, and superannuated workers.—James O. Yarger.

Article Abstractors—1944

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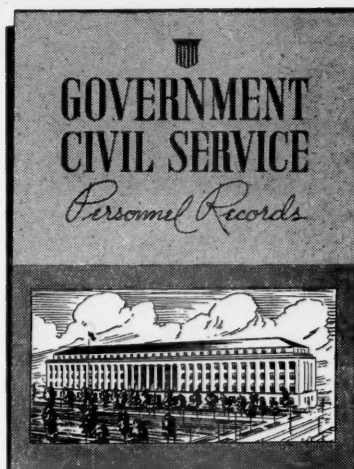
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